THE

PROGRESS

OF

THE NATION,

IN ITS VARIOUS

SOCIAL AND ECONOMICAL RELATIONS,

FROM THE

BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY TO THE PRESENT TIME.

BY

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SECTIONS III. AND IV.

INTERCHANGE, AND REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

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Great facility afforded for transport in Great Britain—Advantages thence resulting—Jealousy on this account of foreign countries and commercial restrictions for which it is made the pretext—Consequent injury to those countries—Improvements in Locomotion projected in France.

THERE is not any circumstance connected with the internal condition of England which more strongly excites the admiration and the envy of foreigners than the degree of perfection to which we have brought our means of internal communication. The skill and labour that have been applied to this object, are among the chief exciting causes of that high degree of activity which characterizes and pervades the productive classes in every part of the country. The perfection to which we have carried the means of transporting persons and property from one part of the kingdom to another, has indeed become one of our national characteristics.

Placed, by its insular condition, in circumstances which render efforts of that kind less indispensable than if our country had formed part of the interior of a continent, we have done more than any of the other nations of Europe, some of which are subjected to that disadvantage, for facilitating communications from and to every nook and corner of the land. If we examine the map of England, we shall find that, as regards one mode of public communication, there is not any spot south of

the county of Durham at a greater distance than fifteen miles from water conveyance. In the largest part of the area thus described, that distance is not greater at any spot than ten miles, while in that portion which is the principal seat of our manufactures, canals have been constructed, or rivers rendered navigable, so as to provide means for cheap and easy communication from the very heart of each town to every other part of the kingdom, and to our chief commercial ports. By this means, the raw materials of manufactures are delivered, unencumbered with heavy charges, at the doors of our factories, and finished goods are carried away from them with the utmost facility and economy, for distribution to the different markets of the civilized world.

The advantages to a commercial people of roads upon which they can pass at all times with comfort and celerity between distant markets can hardly be appreciated too highly. By this means the peculiar wants and capabilities of every part of the community come to be understood, and are supplied on the one hand, or made available on the other, to a degree which could never be attained by correspondence with local agents, whose information would, in general, be limited to the circumstances of the spots upon which they reside. The extent of our facilities in this respect has been viewed by our continental neighbours as one great cause of our commercial superiority, and is brought forward by their public economists as a justification of that degree of commercial jealousy which leads them to maintain a system of restrictions, sufficiently inconvenient to us, but far more hurtful to the countries by which it is enforced. This dread of our superiority in the means of internal communication, our *viabilité immense*, was brought forward on a late occasion by the French Minister of Commerce, and stated in a public document as affording

a sufficient reason why our coal and iron should not be suffered to compete with the produce of the mines and forges of France, not considering that the possession of abundant and cheap supplies of these minerals would effect more towards the rapid removal of the existing disparity in this respect between the two countries, than our neighbours could reasonably hope to accomplish at the end of a long series of years of restrictions and prohibitions. The proper understanding of this question is a matter of so much importance, that it is desirable to offer a few facts drawn from the present circumstances of France, in illustration and support of the opinion just expressed.

In the whole range of the science of public economy there is, perhaps, no principle more easily or more clearly demonstrable than the advantage of possessing, at the cheapest possible rates, the raw materials of manufacture, and it may, with equal facility be shown, that of all those materials, there is not one—unless, indeed, food may be so considered—which is of more universal importance than iron. In the first Report of Messrs. Villiers and Bowring on the Commercial relations between France and Great Britain, the following curious calculation is given, in order to show how severe a loss is entailed by the high price of iron upon one class of persons in France—the cultivators of the soil. "The lands cultivated in France are supposed to amount to 22,818,000 hectares, equal to 57,045,000 acres English, and it is calculated that a team of oxen would cultivate 15 hectares: hence the quantity of ploughs employed in France is estimated at about 1,500,000. M. de la Rochefoucault represents the annual use and waste of iron at 40 kilogrammes per team, but it has been more frequently estimated at 50 kilogrammes, mak-

ing for the whole consumption 75,000,000 kilogrammes of iron, which, at 90 francs per 100 kilogrammes, consumes 67,500,000 francs, equal to 2,700,000*l.* sterling. Now, though this estimate is too high for an average calculation, it is undeniable that the iron could be imported from foreign countries at half the price, and the loss to agriculture alone must be taken at above one million sterling per annum." This calculation is probably excessive, since it is well known that the primitive mode of cultivation adopted through a great part of France does not call for the use of the plough, nor admit of the employment of teams of oxen or horses; but this circumstance does not materially affect the argument, since the proportionate loss is as great upon farms where the better modes of culture prevail, and it is further probable that the excessive price of iron may act in preventing the adoption of those better modes of culture in other situations. In whatever way the case may be considered, it will be seen that the high price of iron acts directly to enhance the cost of food, and thus is detrimental to the whole community.

In another way, more immediately connected with this branch of our subject, the high price of this article of prime necessity acts detrimentally to the community. It was given in evidence before the Committee of the House of Commons which sat in 1833 to inquire as to the tolls to be placed on steam-carriages, that every coach which travels between London and Birmingham distributes about eleven pounds weight of wrought iron along the line of road between those two places. This line of road being more than ordinarily level, and being kept in a state of the most perfect repair at all times, may be supposed to cause as little wear to the wheels of carriages and the shoes of horses as can well be experienced upon a common road, and far less than would be experienced

on the ill-formed and worse-conditioned roads of France. If it were possible to estimate the number of miles travelled over by the various wheel-carriages used in that country, where almost all locomotion is carried forward upon the roads, the amount of loss arising from this source must needs be found enormous. If the wear were no greater than upon the hard and level road between London and Birmingham, the loss of iron upon every journey performed between Marseilles and Paris would amount to twenty-five kilogrammes, the cost of which is 18*s*., one-half of which might be saved by freely admitting the iron of other countries.

The loss entailed upon the inhabitants of France, through the badness and insufficiency of the roads in many parts, may be exemplified by the fact, which is stated on the most respectable authority, that in a part of the department of Vaucluse the price of wheat is 25 per cent. greater than the price at the nearest market, which is only twenty-two English miles distant. In this case the means of transport are so imperfect, that goods of all kinds must be conveyed upon the backs of horses or mules.

The French government has lately been engaged in the prosecution of preliminary inquiries with a view to the establishing of various lines of railroads, between different places of commercial importance within the kingdom, and surveys have been made and reported to the Legislative Chambers, of five principal lines or trunks, with various branches, which it is considered desirable should be undertaken. These lines are—

1. From Paris to Rouen, Havre, and Dieppe, with branches to Pontoise and Beauvais.

2. From Paris to Lille, with branches to Valenciennes, Calais, Boulogne, and Dunkirk.

3. From Paris to Strasbourg, with branches to Metz, Vitry-le-Français, on the Marne; and Gray on the Saone.

4. From Paris to Lyons and Marseilles, with branches to Melun and Gray.

5. From Paris to Orleans, Tours, and Bordeaux, with branches to Poitiers, Nantes, Louviers, and Elbœuf.

The extent of these projected lines is 1250 leagues, or about 3125 English miles, and the estimated cost of their construction, 908 millions of francs (36,320,000*l.*). Besides the great enhancement of its cost which would be occasioned by the use of French iron, it is quite impossible that so large a quantity of the material as would be required should be supplied without having recourse to foreign supply, and especially to England, the only country whence any considerable demand could be answered within the requisite time, and without increasing the price to a degree that would greatly interfere with the economical advantage of the undertakings. The employment of French iron would also be unadvisable because of its quality, which is not so well adapted for making the rails as English iron, and would therefore occasion a greater constant expense for keeping the roads in repair.

In the United States of America, where within the last few years railroads have been constructed to a greater extent than in any other country, the inhabitants are dependent upon foreign countries for the greater part of the iron which they use. To counteract, as far as railroads are concerned, the evil effect of this deficiency of home-produced iron, the American government wisely allows the importation, duty free, of the metal actually required for the construction of railroads, although iron in all forms is, with very questionable wisdom, subjected to heavy duties when imported for every other purpose.

Chapter II.

TURNPIKE ROADS.

Length of Turnpike-roads in Great Britain in 1818 and 1829—Length in each county in 1829—Improvement of Roads in Scotland—In Ireland—Effect upon Society—Former condition of Roads in England—Improvements in public Carriages and greater speed in travelling—Traffic upon Roads and Canals as given in evidence before Parliament—Amount of Travelling by Stage-coaches in Great Britain—Proportion of that amount connected with London—Number of Mail-coaches in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The chief improvement made of late years in England in regard to roads, has consisted in reconstructing them upon more scientific principles than were previously employed, an advantage which is mainly owing to the exertions of the late Mr. MacAdam, whose plans have been adopted generally throughout the kingdom, as well as in several foreign countries. England has long been provided with roads in every quarter, yet we find, from parliamentary returns, that, between 1818 and 1829, the length of turnpike-roads in England and Wales has been increased by more than one thousand miles. In the report of the Select Committee on the Turnpike Roads and Highways of England and Wales, which sat in 1820, a summary of the extent of these roads is given as it existed in 1818. That summary was collected from 16,955 returns, made by the surveyors of highways in 9822 parishes, 5217 townships, and 1916 hamlets or other places, leaving a deficiency of returns from only 120 places.

At the time to which those returns have reference, there existed,

	Miles.
In England and Wales, paved streets and turnpike-roads to the extent of	19,725
Other public highways	95,104
Total	114,829

If we suppose that all the turnpike roads then existing were of the statutable breadth of sixty feet, they would have covered 212 square miles, or about 136,000 acres. If all the other public highways were on the average thirty feet wide, they would have covered 540 square miles or 346,000 acres, making altogether, in 1818, 482,000 acres.

We further find, from the report of the Lords' Committee upon Turnpike Trusts, that in the year 1829 the extent of turnpike-roads,

	Miles.
In England, was	18,244
Wales	2,631
	20,875
Scotland	3,666
Total in Great Britain . .	24,541

Their distribution through the respective counties is shown in the following summary:—

SUMMARY of RETURNS made by the Clerks of the Peace and the Clerks of the Roads, of the extent of Turnpike Roads in the different Counties of Great Britain, corrected to the year 1829.

ENGLAND.

	Miles.		Miles.
Bedfordshire . . .	238	Devonshire . . .	782
Berkshire	319	Dorsetshire . . .	347
Buckinghamshire . .	165	Durham	359
Cambridgeshire . .	278	Essex	249
Cheshire	349	Gloucestershire . .	840
Cornwall	318	Hampshire . . .	810
Cumberland . . .	215	Herefordshire . . .	553
Derbyshire	574	Hertfordshire . . .	170

	Miles.
Huntingdonshire	146
Kent	586
Lancashire	631
Leicestershire	445
Lincolnshire	538
Middlesex	158
Monmouthshire	315
Norfolk	271
Northamptonshire	358
Northumberland	479
Nottinghamshire	302
Oxfordshire	342
Rutlandshire	18
Shropshire	988
Somersetshire	746
Staffordshire	630
Suffolk	279
Surrey	281
Sussex	623
Warwickshire	477
Westmoreland	284
Wiltshire	768
Worcestershire	565
Yorkshire	1,448
	18,244

WALES.

Anglesea	25
Brecknockshire	169
Cardiganshire	250
Carmarthenshire	319
Carnarvonshire	129
Denbighshire	165
Flintshire	85
Glamorganshire	355
Merionethshire	261
Montgomeryshire	450
Pembrokeshire	173
Radnorshire	250
	2,631

SCOTLAND.

Aberdeenshire	232
Ayrshire	486
Banffshire	123
Berwickshire	126
Clackmannanshire	71
Dumbartonshire	57
Dumfriesshire	251
Edinburghshire	273
Elginshire	26
Forfarshire	131
Haddingtonshire	120
Kincardineshire	96
Kirkcudbright	216
Lanarkshire	374
Linlithgowshire	117
Nairnshire	9
Peeblesshire	113
Perthshire	225
Renfrewshire	195
Roxburghshire	193
Selkirkshire	23
Stirlingshire	158
Wigtonshire	51
	3,666

If we allow 150 miles for the deficient returns in 1818, and which is somewhat above the average given by the 16,955 returns actually made, we shall find an increase of exactly 1000 miles in England and Wales; but this increase is of little importance, if viewed comparatively with the improvements introduced into their construction and management.

As regards the highways of Scotland, we have more precise information given in the reports of the Board of

Works, constituted in 1803, for constructing roads and bridges in the uncultivated districts of that country. Since its formation, that Board has caused the construction of 874 miles of roads, and more than 1000 bridges.

By this means, according to the opinion of the late Mr. Telford, whose opportunities of forming a correct judgment upon the subject few persons will question, we have advanced civilization in the districts principally affected, by at least one hundred years. The manner in which this advancement has shown itself in one part of the country was thus described in the evidence given by Mr. Loch, before the Select Committee on Public Works in Ireland, of which Committee he was a member, and which sat in the Session of 1835:—

"When I first became acquainted with the Highlands, the great proportion of the people, in place of being immediate tenants of the landlord, held of the different tacksmen. Since then almost all persons occupying land, and I do not confine my observations to Sutherland alone, though principally to it, have become immediate tenants to the landlord. They were extremely irregular in their habits, being poachers on the rivers, and smugglers, and since then, in Sutherland, they have given up both, and have become most industrious workmen in every class of agricultural labour. It was necessary, at the period I mention, to get ploughmen from Elgin, and that side of the Moray frith, and there was not a person who could build a stone wall, the ordinary mode of enclosing land in that country. But it is so much the reverse at the present moment, that almost every ploughman in the county is a native, and they are now the best builders of stone walls in the North, in consequence of which they are employed in all the adjacent counties. A great improvement has taken place also, arising from

the greater extension of the English language. When the children on the coast-side formerly came out of school, though they were taught to read English in the school, they spoke nothing but the Gaelic language; now when they play after school hours on the coast-side, they all speak English. Nothing has tended so much to this as the institution of Gaelic schools, which were founded with the object of preserving that language; but the fact is, the moment persons have acquired the facility of reading Gaelic, they find it of no use, and immediately leave it and teach themselves English."

The moral improvement here pointed out is ascribed by Mr. Loch to the formation of roads by the government since 1803, and a like effect has been experienced in at least an equal degree in Ireland. Mr. Griffith, speaking upon the subject in 1822, thus expresses himself:—

"The fertile plains of Limerick, Cork, and Kerry are separated from each other by a deserted country, hitherto nearly an impassable barrier. This large district comprehends upwards of 900 square miles; in many places it is very populous. As might be expected, under such circumstances, the people are turbulent, and their houses being inaccessible for want of roads, it is not surprising that during the disturbances of 1821 and 1822 this district was the asylum for whiteboys, smugglers, and robbers, and that stolen cattle were drawn into it, as to a safe and impenetrable retreat. Notwithstanding its present desolate state," adds Mr. Griffith, "this country contains within itself the seeds of future improvement and industry."

In reporting upon the state of the same district in 1829, only seven years after the above unfavourable description was given, but during which interval several

roads had been opened through it, the same intelligent gentleman states as follows :—

" A very considerable improvement has already taken place in the vicinity of the roads, both in the industry of the inhabitants and the appearance of the country; upwards of sixty new lime-kilns have been built; carts, ploughs, harrows, and improved implements have become common ; new houses of a better class have been built, new enclosures made, and the country has become perfectly tranquil and exhibits a scene of industry and exertion at once pleasing and remarkable. A large portion of the money received for labour has been husbanded with care, laid out in building substantial houses, and in the purchase of stock and agricultural implements, and numerous examples might be shown of poor labourers possessing neither money, houses, nor land, when first employed, who in the past year have been enabled to take farms, build houses, and stock their lands."

In a report made in the year 1824, by the late Mr. Nimmo, a gentleman to whom Ireland is much indebted for the suggestion and execution of many plans of enlightened improvement, it is stated that in a part of the county of Kerry, " a few years ago there was hardly a plough, car, or carriage of any kind ; butter, the only produce, was carried to Cork on horseback; there was not one decent public-house, and only one house slated and plastered in the village; the nearest post-office thirty miles distant. Since the new road was made, there were built in three years upwards of twenty respectable two-story houses, a shop with cloth, hardware, and groceries; a comfortable inn, a post-office, bridewell, new chapel, a quay covered with limestone for manure, a salt-work, two stores for oats, and a considerable traffic in linen and yarn." This gratifying statement describes only the first

beginning of improvement. When seven more years had passed, the population amounted to more than 1100; they now exceed 1300 souls. The twenty houses spoken of by Mr. Nimmo have been increased to more than 250, forming the flourishing town of Cahir Caveen, which is the centre of a considerable import and export trade. These advantages, which are still only beginning to develope themselves, have originated in the making of about seventy miles of new road, on a level line.

It is stated in the reports of the Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland, a Board established by Act of Parliament in 1831, that "the benefits which the country has derived from the construction of roads carried by the aid of Government contributions through extensive poor uncultivated districts, which were previously without means of communication, continue to manifest themselves in the most satisfactory manner.

"The very great benefit which the country has derived from the formation of these roads has been repeatedly represented; nothing, however, short of witnessing the effects produced can give an adequate impression of their value.

"These roads have been the means of fertilizing the deserts, and of depriving the lawless disturbers of the public peace of their place of refuge, affording them at the same time resources for an active, honest industry, of which, we must do them the justice to observe, they have not shown any indisposition to avail themselves.

"In traversing a country covered with farms and in a high state of cultivation, showing every sign of a good soil, and of amply-remunerating produce, it becomes difficult to credit the fact, that ten or twelve years since, the whole was a barren waste, the asylum of a miserable and lawless peasantry, who were calculated to be a burthen

rather than a benefit to the nation; and that this improvement may entirely be attributed to the expenditure of a few thousand pounds in carrying a good road of communication through the district."

Among the subjects to which the Commissioners for inquiring into the condition of the poorer classes in Ireland have extended their investigations, the state of the public roads has been included. From the evidence given, it appears that the roads between market-towns are in good repair, and so improved, in comparison to their former condition, that a horse is now able to carry to market twice or thrice the load that he used to draw twenty years ago. This improvement is most apparent "in the neighbourhood of resident proprietors' seats, and through their estates, as they take care, by means of their local influence, to have the county money laid out on the roads upon and near their own property."

The almost magical effect ascribed to the opening of new roads in Ireland was, at a period not very distant, experienced in England, even within what is now only a four hours' journey from London. An inhabitant of Horsham, in Sussex, now living, remembers, when a boy, to have heard from a person whose father carried on the business of a butcher in that town, that in his time the only means of reaching the metropolis was either by going on foot or riding on horseback, the latter of which undertakings was not practicable at all periods of the year, nor in every state of the weather—that the roads were not at any time in such a condition as to admit of sheep or cattle being driven upon them to the London markets, and that, for this reason, the farmers were prevented sending thither the produce of their land, the immediate neighbourhood being, in fact, their only market. Under these circumstances, a quarter of a fat

ox was commonly sold for about 15*s.*, and the price of mutton throughout the year was only five farthings the pound. Horsham is 36 miles from London, and the journey between the two places now occupies less than four hours; more than 30 stage-coaches travelling at this rate pass through Horsham every day, on their way from and to the metropolis, in addition to numerous private carriages and post-chaises; the traffic of goods—principally coal and agricultural produce—carried on in the district of which Horsham is the centre, exceeds 40,000 tons a-year, besides which, the road is constantly covered with droves of cattle and flocks of sheep.

The imperfection thus described, as formerly existing in Sussex, was by no means confined to that county. In Arthur Young's "Tour in the North of England," published in 1770, he gives the following description of the turnpike-road between Preston and Wigan, a spot which is now become a centre for railway operations. "I know not, in the whole range of language, terms sufficiently expressive to describe this infernal road. To look over a map, and perceive that it is a principal one, not only to some towns, but even whole counties, one would naturally conclude it to be at least decent; but let me most seriously caution all travellers who may accidentally purpose to travel this terrible county, to avoid it as they would the devil, for a thousand to one but they break their necks or their limbs by overthrows or breakings down. They will here meet with ruts, which I actually measured, four feet deep, and floating with mud, only from a wet summer,—what, therefore, must it be after a winter? The only mending it receives in places is the tumbling in some loose stones, which serve no other purpose but jolting a carriage in the most intolerable

manner. These are not merely opinions, but facts, for I actually passed three carts broken down, in these 18 miles of execrable memory."

The benefits which have resulted from the improvement of roads in this and other parts of the country, are not confined to the particular spots where those improvements have been made, but are shared by the country generally. This fact was formerly so ill understood, that, when it was in contemplation to extend turnpike-roads from the metropolis to more distant points than those to which they had before been carried, the farmers in the metropolitan counties petitioned parliament against the plan, fearing lest their market being invaded by so many competitors, who would sell their produce more cheaply, they should be ruined. The comparative rent of land in the neighbourhood of London, and indeed of every large town, now that so much more facility of communication has been attained, is a sufficient answer to the apprehensions then expressed. Without thus increasing the means of supply, it is manifestly impossible greatly to increase the population of towns; by restricting their population, the growth of commercial and manufacturing industry would be arrested, the augmentation of the capital of the country would proceed but slowly, if at all, and the nation would continue stationary, or its progress would at best be hardly perceptible. In such a state of things it would be vain to expect that any advances should be made towards the attainment of rational freedom, or the improvement of our social institutions, and if, notwithstanding these circumstances, population were to increase, the mass of the people must continually become poorer, they would be more and more driven to the habitual use of the lowest descriptions of food, and,

instead of the gratifying spectacle now exhibited, of a people steadily advancing in the attainment of the arts and the blessings of civilization, we should gradually sink into a state of barbarism, and might in the end be degraded to the lowest scale of intelligence compatible with human nature.

The improvements made in the mode of constructing roads, and the state of perfect repair in which they are maintained, have led to corresponding improvements in the form and construction of our public carriages and in everything connected with their management and performance. Very considerable improvements in these respects had been made in the second half of the last century. In 1742, the one stage coach that travelled between London and Oxford began the journey at 7 in the morning and did not reach its destination until the evening of the following day, resting at High Wycombe during the intervening night. The same journey is now regularly performed in six hours. It will serve to show the degree of improvement that had been attained at the close of the last century, to state, that the author well remembers, in the summer of 1798, leaving the town of Gosport at 1 o'clock in the morning in the Telegraph, then considered a "fast coach," and arriving at the Golden Cross, Charing Cross, at 8 in the evening, thus occupying 19 hours in travelling 80 miles, being at the rate of rather more than 4 miles an hour: this journey is now performed in 8 hours. Our countrymen who visit France complain of the slow pace of the diligence in that country, not remembering that it is equal to that which was ordinarily accomplished in this country less than 40 years ago. On all the principal roads communicating with London, the rate of travelling is now nearly or quite 10 miles an hour, nor is it in celerity alone that

improvement has been made. It might have been supposed that, to attain so high a degree of speed, the personal safety of passengers would be further endangered, but the very contrary is the fact, so that, notwithstanding the rapidity with which we are whirled along, the number of accidents is actually lessened, a result which is produced by the better construction of the carriages, the greater perfection of the harness, the absence of such obstacles as were described by Arthur Young, and, more than all, by the superior character of the drivers, a steady, well-conducted, and sober class of persons having taken the place of men with habits and characters the very reverse.

If previous to the adoption of the improvements here noticed in the construction and maintenance of our turnpike-roads the above results had been anticipated, the prediction would have been thought wild and chimerical; but, witnessing as we do those results, we are now so far from considering them as the limit of our onward progress, that we reasonably look for a series of further improvements in locomotion, of which railways and steam carriages may be only among the first steps, and which will do more for us and our descendants than turnpike-roads have done for our immediate predecessors and ourselves, in facilitating intercourse between different parts of the kingdom, in opening distant markets, in economizing the cost of transport, and in equalizing the prices of produce throughout the kingdom, for the general benefit of the community.

It is a difficult thing to obtain accurate estimates of the amount of traffic upon roads or canals. In ordinary cases no one is interested in keeping an account of the number of vehicles or of passengers, or the quantity of goods conveyed upon the roads, and as the property in canals belongs to individuals or to private associations,

it is judged prudent to conceal such facts, lest the knowledge of them should encourage rivalry. The only occasions on which information of this kind is collected and made public, are, when the promoters of some new undertaking are desirous of making out a case in favour of their own project, and it must be obvious that statements thus proffered are liable to some exaggeration, and must be received with caution. In the way here mentioned some information has lately been given in evidence before the committees of the House of Commons, appointed to examine the numerous railway bills brought forward, and in the absence of more extensive and authentic returns, the information thus given may be interesting.—(See Table, p. 20.)

The calculations as to the number of passengers conveyed by stage-coaches upon the different lines of road embraced by the foregoing estimates, are for the most part grounded upon information furnished by the Stamp Office in London, in which department the necessary particulars are registered, upon the issue of the license, without which no person is allowed to convey passengers for hire from one part of this kingdom to another. In order to obtain some approximation to the extent of travelling by such means in England, a careful calculation has been made upon the whole of the returns so made to the Stamp Office, and the licenses for which coaches were in operation at the end of the year 1834. The method followed in making the calculation has been to ascertain the performance of each vehicle, supposing that performance to have been equal to the full amount of the permission conveyed by the license, reducing the power so given to a number equal to the number of miles which one passenger might be conveyed in the course of the year;—for example: a coach is licensed to convey 15

NAME OF RAILWAY.	Passengers along the proposed line by Coaches, &c.	Number of Cattle.	Number of Sheep.	Number of Swine.	Merchandise by Wagons, &c.	Merchandise by Water.	Agricultural Produce.	Coals by Land.	Coals by Water.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Birmingham and Derby Junction	145,749	7,254	27,105	..	14 547	188,006	11,401	..	..
Birmingham and Gloucester	210,125	4,033	8,304	..	29,020	..	..	..	..
Hull and Selby	195,662	..	..	..	..	93,873	..	..	..
Bristol and Exeter	170,208	15,000	85,000	..	33,618	22,025	38,318	..	60,000
Cheltenham and Great Western	246,013	13,104	55,510	..	31,848	..	..	..	..
Sheffield and Rotherham	175,109	..	..	..	36,374	106,223	..	..	..
North Midland	149,812	..	..	..	124,370	..	..	..	..
Midland Counties	255,424	..	..	..	12,948	67,732	..	..	285,000
Manchester and Leeds	207,688	..	..	..	109,486	189,020	..	..	60,452
York and North Midland	185,660	53,000	110,600	..	5,547	95,100	3,950	..	98,000
South Eastern (London and Dover)	317,252	..	..	..	63,079	53,216	..	..	..
Eastern Counties	1,449,736	50,000	433,300	20,000	274,775	..	..	..	85,917
London and Cambridge	591,344	111,956	533,520	..	72,214	223,600	..	..	..
Manchester and Cheshire	84,769	..	..	..	22,728	183,634	..	..	..
London and Brighton	226,444	..	..	..	43,765	..	18,500	76,500	..
Edinburgh, Leith, and Newhaven	3,877,131	..	..	..	282,326	..	..	..	..
Dundee and Arbroath	200,727	..	..	..	51,899	..	..	..	..
Blackwall { By Coaches	932,731	}							
Blackwall { By Steam-boats	1,057,742	} ..	..	..	170,075	163,618	..	..	..
Great North of England (Harworth and York)	75,158	20,000	28,000	..	32,136	..	..	80,000	..
Chester and Crewe	74,568	..	..	26,728	17,378	104,948	..	..	..
Great Western	404,924	..	..	..	85,244	..	..	..	..
Lancaster and Preston	106,957	..	..	..	..	13,011	..	..	..
Sheffield and Manchester	335,444	20,800	30,000	26,000	84,050	..	..	..	..
Glasgow and Ayr	597,470	..	..	..	121,027	..	4,453	22,052	..
Chester and Liverpool	169,684	..	..	..	82,780	52,052	..	..	..

passengers daily from London to Birmingham, a distance of 112 miles. In order to ascertain the possible performance of this carriage, during the year, if the number of miles is multiplied by the number of journeys and that product multiplied again by the number of passengers, we shall obtain, as an element, a number equal to the number of miles along which one person might have been conveyed: viz. $112 \times 365 \times 15 = 613{,}200$. In this case the number of miles travelled is 40,880, along which distance 15 persons might have been carried during the year, but, for the simplification of the calculation, the further calculation is made, which shows that amount of travelling to be equal to the conveyance of one person through the distance of 613,200 miles. Upon making this calculation for the whole number of stage-coaches that possessed licenses at the end of the year 1834, it appears that the means of conveyance thus provided for travelling, are equivalent to the conveyance during the year of one person, for the distance of 597,159,420 miles, or more than six times the distance between the earth and the sun. Observation has shown that the degree in which the public avail themselves of the accommodation thus provided is in the proportion of 9 to 15 or 3-5ths of its utmost extent. Following this proportion, the sum of all the travelling by stage-coaches in Great Britain may be represented by 358,295,652 miles; if we exclude from the calculation all very young children, as well as persons who from their great age and bodily infirmities are unable to travel, there will probably remain in England 10,000,000 of persons by whom that amount of travelling might be accomplished; but it is well known that a very large proportion of the population are not placed in circumstances that require them to travel, and if even it were otherwise, that they

would not avail themselves of a mode of conveyance so comparatively costly as a stage-coach. We shall probably go to the utmost extent in assuming that not more than 1-5th or two millions of persons travel in that manner, and it places in a strong point of view the activity which pervades this country when we thus arrive at the conclusion that each of those persons must on the average travel on land by some public conveyance 180 miles in the course of the year. This calculation is exclusive of all travelling in post-chaises, in private carriages, and by steam-vessels, the amount of which there are not any means for estimating.

It affords a good measure of the relative importance of the metropolis to the remainder of the country that of the above number of 597,159,420 the large proportion of 409,052,644 is the product of stage-coaches, which are licensed to run from London to various parts of the kingdom. The licenses, which have formed the groundwork of the calculations, include all public conveyances proceeding between one part of England and another part of England, as well as those conveyances which travel between England and Scotland, but not such as begin and end their journeys in Scotland; and the travelling in Ireland is wholly excluded.

There are at present (1837) 54 four-horse and 49 pair-horse *mail-coaches* in England. The greatest speed attained by any of these is 10¾ miles per hour, and the slowest speed of any, is 6 miles, the average of the whole being 8¾ miles per hour. There are besides 30 four-horse mails in Ireland, and 10 in Scotland. The number of stage-coaches, including mails, licensed by the Commissioners of Stamps at the beginning of 1837, was 3,026. Of this number about one-half (1507) begin or end their journeys in London.

Chapter III.

CANALS.

Beginning of Canal-making in England—Utility of the Duke of Bridgewater's Canals—Length of Navigable Rivers and Canals in England—Inland Navigation in Ireland—Neglect of natural facilities in that country—Improvement of the Shannon—Traffic on Grand and Royal Canals and River Barrow—Ulster Canal—Caledonian Canal—Crinan Canal—Canals begun and finished since 1801—Canals of France—Of America.

The greatest era of canal construction in England was during the latter half of the last century. Some efforts were made at earlier periods for the introduction of this kind of inland navigation, but were without success; and we may fairly date the origin of English canals from the act of 1755, under the authority of which a canal about 11 miles in length was executed, which commences in the river Mersey at the mouth of Sankey-brook, alongside which it runs in a northerly direction to Gerrard's bridge and St. Helen's.

In 1759, before the Sankey-brook canal was finished, the Duke of Bridgewater obtained his first Act of Parliament, empowering him to construct those stupendous works which, from the boldness of their design and the masterly manner of their execution, have justly obtained for himself, and for James Brindley, the extraordinary self-taught genius, by whom they were planned and executed, a renown of the highest order. These works, carried forward in defiance of natural difficulties, which were at the time deemed insurmountable, opened a new era in the annals of inland navigation, and though they may since have been equalled, have never been surpassed.

The great public utility of these canals of the Duke of Bridgewater, and the immense revenues which they

have continued to produce to their proprietors, have acted as powerful incentives to the undertaking of similar works. The navigable canals used for the transport of goods and produce in England alone, are estimated now to exceed 2,200 miles in length, while the navigable rivers exceed 1800 miles, making together more than 4000 miles of inland navigation, the greatest part of which has been created or rendered available during the last eighty years.

In the report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the State of the Poor in Ireland, which sat in 1830, it was with truth remarked, that "the effect of opening lines of inland navigation, when formed upon proper scientific principles, and executed with due economy, has been, on the concurrence of all testimony, the extension of improved agriculture, the equalization of prices of fuel and provisions in different districts, the diminishing the danger of scarcity in both of these necessaries of life, and advancing the general improvement of the condition of the people, by the creation of a new, vigorous, and continued demand for labour."

Most of the works of this kind that have been executed have produced to the adventurers an adequate return for the capital expended. This in itself may be considered a sufficient test of their utility, but even where the proprietors have not reaped a fair advantage for their outlay, it does not necessarily follow that, as regards the country at large, the money has been ill bestowed. On this head, the remarks of the late Mr. Nimmo upon the effects of the canals cut in Ireland will be found with some modifications to be generally applicable. He observes, "the inland navigations of Ireland are chiefly remarkable for being undertaken, not to facilitate any existing trade, but chiefly to promote agriculture in the fertile districts of the interior, to create a

trade where none had previously existed, and to furnish employment for the poor. The success in this way has been wonderful, and though the adventurers have not yet been repaid, and perhaps never will be, the benefit to the public and landed property of the kingdom has been great and manifest. The nation has been saved the payment of a bounty of 100,000*l.* per annum, for bringing corn to Dublin, for in place of this being the case that city has now become one of the first corn ports of Europe, and Ireland in general, which half a century ago imported corn to the value of half a million annually, has now a surplus produce in that article, to the value of 4,000,000*l.* per annum, while the whole expenditure, whether in public or in private works of navigation, even including the interest paid on loans, hardly amounted to 3,000,000*l.*"

The advantages thus strikingly brought forward by Mr. Nimmo have resulted from means of internal intercourse, which, when contrasted with those accomplished in England, must appear insignificant. The whole extent of navigable canals at this moment available in Ireland, does not amount to 300 miles, and including navigable rivers, the entire water communication does not exceed 500 miles for the whole island. What the condition of that fertile country might become if its means of communication were placed upon an equal footing with those of the midland and southern counties of England, is a question of the highest interest to every one who has at heart the moral and intellectual advancement of the Irish people, and as a consequence the general prosperity of the United Kingdom.

It is not the least singular part of the case, that while so much has been done in England, to supply a natural deficiency of water communication, the natural facilities

for executing such works in Ireland have, on the contrary, been of the most encouraging description. The neglect which these facilities have met with is not to be accounted for upon the generally operating principle that where nature has done much, there human ingenuity is less called forth. The neglect of the people to take advantage of the boons of nature, has for the most part been such as to render them of non effect. The Shannon, the most majestic river in the United Kingdom, which, with its lakes and lateral branches, receives the drainage of a considerable portion of Ireland, and appears formed by nature to act as the great artery of the island, for facilitating its agricultural and commercial operations, by marking out a line for the expeditious and cheap conveyance of produce and merchandize, requires only a little assistance from art to bring all its usefulness to bear upon the prosperity of the country; yet this little has been withheld, and the grand designs of nature have been frustrated through the apathy, or something even less excusable, of the people or government, so that this river has been not inaptly compared to *a sealed book*. This noble stream flows during its course 230 miles through the centre of the island, and may be said to offer the blessings of commerce and its civilizing results to 10 out of 32 of the counties into which Ireland is divided.

The great capabilities of the river Shannon have been long acknowledged. At the Summer Assizes of 1794, the High Sheriffs and Grand Juries of the counties of Roscommon, Leitrim, Mayo, Galway, Clare, Limerick, King's County and Tipperary, resolved, that "the completing of the navigation of the river Shannon and the great rivers adjoining thereto from Lough Allen to Limerick, will tend effectually to improve and open the

home and foreign markets to the produce of more than 2,000,000 of acres of land in the heart of the kingdom; and that the execution of this great navigation will effectually advance the commerce, manufactures, agriculture and population of this kingdom, and the consequent strength of the empire at large."

Through an unaccountable want of enterprise and even common worldly forethought on the part of those land-holders whose properties would have been improved by following up the recommendation embodied in the foregoing resolution, nothing effectual to that end has been done during the forty years that have since elapsed. In the three years from 1818 to 1820 parliament indeed voted 21,000*l.* for making or repairing works on the Shannon, but these grants appear to have been expended with but little judgment.

In a report addressed to the Government so recently as the 30th of April 1833, by Colonel Burgoyne, the Chief Commissioner of the Board of Public Works in Ireland, the neglect here mentioned is thus noticed: "It is indeed surprising to find so noble a river, running through so fine a country in such a state of neglect. The soil on its banks is of the most fertile nature; iron, marble, slate, and various other productions of superior quality are also to be found in abundance. Though great capabilities exist for easy intercourse, a perfect stagnation unhappily prevails; and, where forests of masts and bustling activity of commerce should be witnessed, the scene is desolate and only varied occasionally by the passage of some straggling boat, which with difficulty, and perhaps, with only half a cargo, is striving to make its way to one of the Dublin canals. There is, perhaps, no part of the British dominions where such an opening is presented for prospective advantages."

From a very remote period, almost the only use that has been made of this river, through a great part of its course, has been to convert it into a fish-pond; its channel has been artificially obstructed, and rapids have been created, in order to provide "eel and salmon weirs, which are to this day established at pleasure, under authority of the proprietors of the banks, and present the greatest difficulties in the way of navigation."

At length the improvement of this river appears to be taken seriously in hand by Government. Accurate surveys of the whole of its line have been made by competent engineers, whose reports have been laid before Parliament; plans have been formed for rendering the stream navigable throughout its course, from Lough Allen in the county of Leitrim to its mouth; and an Act was passed on the 9th of September 1835 (5 & 6 William IV. c. 67) authorizing the completion of the necessary works under Commissioners nominated by the Treasury, with power to remove obstructions and to annul any private rights that may exist unfavourable to the object, making compensation for the same. The expense of these works is, in the first instance, to be wholly defrayed out of the public revenue; one half of the sum, whatever it may be, is to be made a free grant, and the other half is to be repaid by twelve half-yearly instalments, out of the surplus tolls, and in the event of these being insufficient, power is then given to the Commissioners to raise the deficiency by a local rate or assessment upon the adjoining counties and districts, in proportions according to the particular extent of the benefits which each may be supposed to have derived from the improvements.

It is questionable whether the mode thus adopted for obtaining repayment of half the cost of the works be the

most judicious that could have been found. It certainly appears equitable that those who will in a peculiar manner benefit by the improvements should repay at least a part of the cost, and if the proprietors of estates thus circumstanced had been called upon to contribute towards the gradual extinction of the debt that will be incurred to the public, they could have had no just cause of complaint, since they would have found themselves benefited in a far greater degree than could be counterbalanced by the charge. But it is of the very greatest importance that the high roads of commerce, and especially where a traffic has to be created, should not be encumbered with heavy tolls. By burthening the navigation at the very commencement, when encouragement is most needed, with so heavy a sum annually as one-twelfth part of the whole expenditure, it is much to be feared that the rate of toll must be fixed so high as to act as a considerable discouragement. It may be questioned whether it would not be more for the advantage of the landowners themselves in the counties through which the navigation will be carried, at once to charge themselves with the gradual redemption of the debt, rather than attempt to throw the burthen upon the public at large. The course proposed may place an obstacle in the way of that free intercourse by which new markets might be opened for their products, and the resources of the soil might be rendered capable of a full development, through the ample supply of manures essential to the perfection of agricultural labours, and which although lying comparatively at their doors, have hitherto been unattainable through the absence of a ready and especially a cheap mode of conveyance.

There are considerations connected with the peculiar circumstances in which the population of the south and west of Ireland are placed, which seem to give additional

cogency to the reasons that have here been urged in favour of cheapening the means of transport. What is principally wanted towards ameliorating the physical condition of the working classes of Ireland, is a steady market for their labour. It is the want of certain employment which has driven them of necessity into the system of hiring, each one for himself, one or two acres or even roods of ground, at an exorbitant rent, as the only resource left against absolute starvation. Let the value of farms be improved by the means above stated, and there can exist no reason why their proprietors should not retain the occupation of the land, and give continuous employment to an adequate number of labourers. Until a sufficient inducement to this course is held out, or until some other means are devised for absorbing the now surplus labourers of the country, the introduction of any compulsory measure for the relief of the Irish poor must be a fearful experiment as regards the owners of the soil. The opinion that such a mode of granting relief must speedily be adopted is fast gaining ground, and surely it were no more than common prudence to make preparations for the event. The improvement of internal navigation, the opening of roads, and the construction of bridges, would, during their progress, give employment to great numbers of labourers, who in proportion as these works should be completed, would by that very means find a demand for their labour created, which would prevent the danger that now threatens to accompany the introduction of a poor law.

The foregoing suggestions were written previous to the appearance of the Third Report of the Commissioners for inquiring into the condition of the poorer classes in Ireland, and it is satisfactory to find that the views and recommendations of the Commissioners are altogether

in agreement with those suggestions. Fully recognizing the absolute necessity for some legislative interference in order to lighten the load of misery which now weighs upon the largest class of the population of Ireland, the Commissioners express themselves "satisfied that enactments calculated to promote the improvement of the country, and so to extend the demand for free and profitable labour, should make essential parts of any law for ameliorating the condition of the poor."

To this end, the Commissioners have proposed the appointment of a Board of Improvement, which should have power "to enforce improvements in property at the expense of the property improved," upon the same principle as that adopted in the laws which form the constitution of the Bedford Level Corporation in England: that draining and fencing wherever necessary shall be enforced by law under the directions of local Commissioners to be appointed in every district, and who shall be under the control of the Board of Improvement: that the funds required for carrying on such works, and for the making of roads and bridges, may be advanced by the issue of Government Exchequer Bills, the interest and redemption of which shall be provided for by means of rates made upon the property in each district: and that in order to instruct the cultivators in the best methods of managing their land, model farms shall be established in every district, and each farm be placed under the direction of a person competent to give instructions and practically to exhibit their value, by introducing the most approved course of cropping upon the farm under his care.

Superadded to these preparations, the Commissioners strongly recommend an extensive system of emigration, "not by any means as the main relief for the evils of

Ireland, but as an auxiliary essential to a commencing course of amelioration."

Having brought these preparations into operation, the Commissioners are of opinion "that provision should be made by law towards the relief of the aged and infirm, orphans, helpless widows with young children, and destitute persons in general."

Two methods are pointed out whereby the funds for this purpose may be provided. One of these—to the adoption of which the majority of the Commissioners are inclined—suggests that those funds "should be provided in part by the public through a national rate, and in part by private associations, which aided by the public should be authorised to establish mendicity houses and almshouses, and to administer relief to the poor at their own dwellings, subject, however, to the superintendence and control of the Poor Law Commissioners." The second method pointed out is, that "the whole of the funds should be provided by the public, one portion by a national rate, and another by a local rate, and should be administered, as in England, by the Board of Guardians of each district."

Allusion has already been made (vol. i., pp. 58, 59) to the different proportions in which the population of Great Britain and of Ireland are engaged in agricultural pursuits. If by means such as have been proposed by the Commissioners, this great disparity were to be suddenly remedied, the evil consequences might be extremely serious. It is calculated that by draining and reclaiming bogs, about five millions of acres may be additionally brought into cultivation in Ireland, when the quantity of cultivated land would amount to 19,600,000 acres. If the proportionate number of labourers employed upon this quantity of land were assimilated to the number

employed in England, it would give occupation to about 605,000 labourers, being very few beyond one-half the number of agricultural labourers of Ireland, as ascertained at the census of 1831.

The proposed alteration could not, however, be otherwise than gradually adopted, and we may hope that in the same degree the Irish people would exhibit other evidences of their improved condition—that they would avail themselves of the great natural facilities which their country offers for extended commercial intercourse, and for the establishment of manufactures. "It has been questioned," say the Commissioners, from whose report so many quotations have already been made, "whether Ireland possesses sufficient coals within herself for manufactures; but coals are now carried to Ireland so rapidly and at so little cost from the English collieries, that manufactures cannot now be prevented from spreading in Ireland by want of coals. What they are prevented by is want of order, of peace, of obedience to the laws, and that security of property which never can exist until the general habits and condition of the people are thoroughly improved."

Various sums have from time to time since the Union been granted by the Imperial Parliament for the promotion of public works, with the view of providing employment for the people in Ireland; but although these grants amount in the aggregate to a large sum, their application has been productive only of partial and temporary good; and there is reason to fear that unless the various propositions offered by the Commissioners for the inquiry into the state of the poor in that country shall, in all their principal features, be carried simultaneously into effect, upon a scale of greater magnitude than has hitherto been attempted, the same unsatisfactory result

would be experienced. In particular it appears altogether indispensable that a system of emigration, upon a scale sufficiently extensive to absorb all the absolute surplus labour of Ireland, should be adopted.

That the sums expended by the country at large for the improvement of internal communications in Ireland, have not been unproductive, may be fairly inferred from the following statement of traffic upon the Grand and Royal Canals and the Barrow Navigation, on the average of the three years 1821 to 1823, when compared with the average of the three years from 1831 to 1833:—

	Average of Traffic, 1821-22-23. Tons.	Average of Traffic, 1831-32-33. Tons.
Grand Canal . . .	140,236	227,169
Royal Canal . . .	88,190	141,973
River Barrow, down .	23,770	35,487
,, ,, up .	19,478	30,558
Tons .	271,674	435,187

Showing an increase of traffic in ten years amounting to 60 per cent. The Grand and Royal Canals of Ireland were constructed upon a scale of magnitude far greater than was necessary, and consequently at a much more considerable cost than would have sufficed for the attainment of the objects in view; still there is reason to hope that as a money speculation they may be brought in a few years to pay the proprietors, if, as we may hope, the resources of the country shall be further developed than they are at present. Since the beginning of the present century parliamentary grants have been made in favour of public works in Ireland, amounting to 1,632,620*l.*, and expended chiefly upon undertakings connected with this branch of our inquiry.

It appears that a proper appreciation of the value of

inland navigation to the country is far from being generally felt in Ireland. So long ago as the year 1824, a canal was projected, and an Act of Parliament obtained, at the instance of some influential noblemen and gentlemen connected with the north of Ireland, authorising the formation of an incorporate company for the construction of the necessary works to connect Lough Erne with Lough Neagh, and thus by a cutting, forty-six English miles in length, to render available a continuous navigation of 130 miles. The proposed navigation will intersect Ireland from east to west, passing through populous and fertile agricultural districts, where hitherto the only practicable method of conveying the produce of the soil to market, or to the ports of shipment, has been the tedious and expensive one of carriage on the backs of horses. The whole cost of the undertaking will be under 200,000*l.*, of which sum Government consented to advance three-fifths, at a low rate of interest; yet it has only been after years of anxious efforts on the part of the promoters, that subscribers could be found willing to advance the remaining two-fifths. This work, under the name of "The Ulster Canal," is now in progress of execution, according to the plans of the late Mr. Telford, and promises to produce great advantages to the counties of Fermanagh, Tyrone, Donegal, Leitrim, and Cavan. It was partially opened for use in November, 1837, and according to the expectation of the engineers employed, will be completed in the course of 1838. During its progress this work has proved a great blessin to the district through which it passes; it has given constant employment at fair wages to a great number of labourers, and has been the means of reclaiming many among them from those habits of reckless indifference and that passion for ardent spirits which are so fatal to the happiness of the working classes in Ireland. With

the power of saving out of their wages, the habit has arisen. The whiskey-shop has been abandoned, and several among those who were first employed, have laid by sufficient money to enable them to emigrate to the United States and to Canada, where they have constituted themselves proprietors, and have before them the certainty of future comfort and independence.

Very early in the present century the Caledonian Canal was projected and commenced. This truly magnificent work consists of a series of canals and navigable locks, extending from Corpach Basin, in the tideway of Loch Eil, at the north end of Linnhe Loch, near Fort William, to the Murray Firth, on the west side of Inverness. The total length of this navigation is 60½ miles, of which 23 miles are artificial cutting, and the remaining 37 miles are natural lochs or lakes which have been rendered navigable. This canal being projected chiefly with a view to facilitate the trade between the Baltic, the western ports of Scotland, and Ireland, is 15 feet deep throughout; its surface breadth is 120 feet, and its breadth at bottom, 50 feet. Its summit level is 91 feet above the sea at low water; it has 28 locks, which are each 172 feet long. Eight of these locks, situated at the eastern side of this navigation, to which the name of Neptune's Staircase has been given, are considered to be works of the very first order, and to attest the skill of the engineer, the late Mr. Telford. The cost of this canal, according to the report of the Commissioners appointed for superintending its execution, was 1,005,770*l.*: it was opened for traffic in October, 1822, but has hitherto been but little used, and as a speculation may be considered unprofitable. The tolls received in the year ending 1st May, 1835, having been 2232*l.*, while the cost of maintaining the canal during that year was 3596*l.*, leaving a deficiency upon the year

of 1188*l.*, exclusive of any charge for interest on the capital expended. This result may in part be attributed to the discriminating duties upon European timber in favour of our North American colonies, which has materially interfered with the branch of trade upon which reliance was chiefly placed for producing an adequate return for the capital expended.

It appears from a report recently made by the Commissioners to whom the management of this canal is entrusted, that the traffic upon it is increasing. In the winter of 1836-37, several Baltic trading vessels passed through, and the further employment of steam vessels has opened a considerable traffic in sheep and black cattle between the Highlands and Glasgow. This last-mentioned object is greatly facilitated by the Crinan Ship Canal, a cutting 9½ miles in length, and 12 to 15 feet deep, across an isthmus in Argyleshire, lying between Loch Crinan and Loch Gilp. The summit level of this canal is 58 feet above the level of the sea, and is attained by means of fifteen locks. The distance which by this short cutting is saved between the termination of the Caledonian Canal at Fort William and Glasgow, is seventy miles. Besides the cattle trade already mentioned, the number of passengers by the steam boats is considerable, and constantly increasing, having been 11,344 in 1835, and 17,862 in 1836: this canal admits vessels of 160 tons burthen.

There passed upon the Caledonian Canal in the year between 1st May, 1836, and 30th April, 1837—

Vessels from the West to the East Sea . .	216
,, ,, East to the West Sea . .	249
Passages on parts of the canal	578
Passages made by steam vessels	199
	1242

The tonnage rates upon which amounted to 2520*l.*

The canals begun and completed since 1800 within the United Kingdom are—

			Miles.
Baybridge Canal	Sussex	Length	3⅜
Birmingham and Liverpool	Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Cheshire	..	39
Bude Haven and branches	Cornwall and Devonshire	.....	45
Carlisle	Cumberland	.....	11¼
Croydon	Kent and Surrey	.....	9½
Glastonbury	Somersetshire	.....	13¼
Grand Surrey	Surrey	.....	4
Grand Union	Leicestershire and Northamptonshire	..	45
Leeds and Liverpool (branches)	Yorkshire and Lancashire	.....	7
Leven	Yorkshire	.....	3
Liskeard and Looe	Cornwall	.....	5⅝
Macclesfield	Cheshire	.....	29½
Newport Pagnell	Buckinghamshire	.....	1¼
North Walsham & Dillham	Norfolk	.....	7
North Wilts	Wiltshire	.....	8
Portsmouth and Arundel and branches	Sussex and Hampshire	.....	16
Regent's	Middlesex	.....	8½
Rochdale	Yorkshire and Lancashire	.....	31½
Royal Military	Kent and Sussex	.....	30
Sankey Brook (extension)	Lancashire	.....	3½
Sheffield	Yorkshire	.....	4
Tavistock	Devonshire	.....	6
Thames and Medway	Kent	.....	7¼
Wey and Arun	Surrey and Sussex	.....	18
Wilts and Berks	Wiltshire and Berkshire	.....	52
Caledonian	Inverness-shire	.....	60½
Edinburgh and Glasgow Union	Stirlingshire, Linlithgowshire, and Edinburghshire	..	30
Glasgow, Paisley, and Ardrossan	Ayr, Renfrew, and Lanarkshire	.	11
Glenkenns	Kirkcudbrightshire	.....	25¾
			536¾

While this volume was going through the press, a

statement was laid upon the table of the House of Commons, containing an account of the tonnage received upon goods—principally salt—conveyed upon the river Weaver, which was rendered navigable at an early part of the eighteenth century. Tolls of this kind are usually received by private associations, and it is therefore difficult to obtain any statements of their amount, which, as the rates are seldom varied, would afford a good test of the progress of the traffic carried on. It will be seen from the following figures that the quantity of goods conveyed upon the Weaver is now about double what it was at the beginning of the present century :—

An Account of the Gross Amount of Tonnage Dues received on the River Weaver and the Weston Canal, in each Year from 1801 to 1837 :—

Years.	Gross Amount of Tonnage received.	Years.	Gross Amount of Tonnage received.
1800— 1	£15,407	1819—20	£19,116
1— 2	16,490	1820—21	19,062
2— 3	14,809	21—22	16,701
3— 4	14,023	22—23	17,758
4— 5	15,659	23—24	21,122
5— 6	17,570	24—25	21,332
6— 7	16,630	25—26	22,988
7— 8	17,524	26—27	20,868
8— 9	17,076	27—28	23,017
9—10	21,744	28—29	26,594
1810—11	23,846	29—30	28,046
11—12	16,379	1830—31	30,221
12—13	20,590	31—32	28,870
13—14	18,357	32—33	29,800
14—15	29,091	33—34	32,156
15—16	23,194	34—35	29,384
16—17	13,169	35—36	26,270
17—18	15,600	36—37	27,916
18—19	22,474		

The whole extent of the canals existing in France at

the end of the last century was very little beyond 500 English miles. Eleven lines, some of which were indeed projected and even begun before the French Revolution, have since been completed or are now on the point of being so. These canals, eleven in number, are together 1250 English miles long, and have cost the French government more than ten millions sterling. The eleven canals are—

		From	Miles.
1.	Rhone and Rhine Canal	St. Jean de Losne to Strasburg	203
2.	Somme ,,	St. Limin to St. Valery	91½
3.	Ardennes ,,	Donchery to Neufchatel and Vouziers ..	61
4.	Burgundy ,,	Roche sur Yonne to St. Jean de Losne	141
5.	Nantes and Brest ,,	Nantes to Brest	218
6.	Ille and Rance ,,	Rennes to Dinau	50
7.	Blavet ,,	Pontivy to Hennebon	34½
8.	Arles and Bouc ,,	Arles to Bouc	27½
9.	Nivernais ,,	Auxerre to Decise.....	103
10.	Berry ,,	Rhimbé to Sancoins, Tours, and Montluçon	186
11.	Loire ,,	Dégoin to Briare.....	134
			1249½

Some magnificent works of this kind have been executed in the United States of America, where at this time canals are in actual operation, affording 3026 miles of artificial inland navigation, distributed in the several States as under—

	Miles.		Miles.
Maine	50	New Jersey	101
Massachusetts . .	47	Pennsylvania . . .	857
Massachusetts and Rhode Island	45	Delaware and Maryland	14
Connecticut . . .	58	Maryland	10
New York	678	Maryland and Pennsylvania	341
New York and Pennsylvania	36	Ohio	571
		Virginia	30

	Miles.		Miles.
Virginia and North Carolina	22	Louisiana	100
Georgia	66		3026

Most of the canals constructed on the continent of Europe have been executed at the expense of the governments of the countries in which they are situated. In England, nearly all our canals owe their existence to the efforts of individuals or of joint-stock associations. In the United States of America they have been made by associations of individuals, and by the legislatures of the separate States, aided occasionally by subscription on the part of the general government.

The splendid canal, which connects the waters of the Hudson with Lake Erie, surpasses by far in extent any similar work in Europe, and it is questioned whether any integral line of artificial navigation in China is of equal extent. It measures 363 miles, and is as remarkable for the rapidity with which it was completed, as for its extent. The difference in level to be overcome was 689 feet, and required 84 locks. The work was projected and surveys were made by order of the legislature of New York in 1808, but difficulties of various kinds, among which was the war with England, prevented the actual beginning of the work until July, 1817; it was completed in October, 1825, at an expense of more than seven millions of dollars. Another canal, 64 miles long, was finished in 1823, connecting the Erie Canal with the waters of Lake Champlain, and cost 1,200,000 dollars. The utility of these canals to the country through which they pass may be estimated from the amount of the tolls collected, which in the six years from 1831 to 1836 was as follows:—

1831...1,194,610 dollars	1834...1,294,649 dollars
1832...1,196,008 ,,	1835...1,492,811 ,,
1833...1,422,695 ,,	1836...1,614,336 ,,

The Erie Canal is the property of the State of New York, which has also constructed and derives a revenue from six other canals, the aggregate length of which is 220 miles. The Delaware and Hudson Canal, 109 miles long, is the property of an incorporated company: its cost was 2,200,000 dollars, and its principal use is the conveyance of coals from the Pennsylvanian mines on the Lackawana river to the city of New York. An extension of this canal, 36 miles in length, has been completed by another private company. The State of Pennsylvania has not been backward in promoting similar improvements. In a report made by the Canal Commissioners to the State Legislature, dated 31st December, 1835, it is stated that "upwards of 600 miles of canals and slack-water navigation" have been completed since 1825, in addition to nearly 120 miles of railroads. The success which has attended those works, undertaken by the State, has stimulated private adventurers to embark in similar undertakings; so that at the time the Commissioners made their report, "there were completed, or in course of construction, about 400 miles of canal, and 520 miles of railroad belonging to companies, swelling the aggregate to 1000 miles of canal, and 640 miles of railroad within the commonwealth. The most important of these works is that belonging to the State, and which connects Philadelphia with Pittsburgh, a distance of 394 miles. The tolls collected on the State canals and railroads in 1835 amounted to 684,357 dollars. In the State of Ohio, which scarcely half a century ago was a perfect wilderness, there are at this time in active and profitable operation nearly 400 miles of artificial inland navigation. The Ohio canal, which connects Lake Erie (and consequently the city of New York) with the Ohio river, is 324 miles long, and was completed in October, 1832, little more than seven years

from the date of its commencement. By the works here described an uninterrupted line of navigation has been secured from the Bay of New York to the Gulf of Mexico, affording means for expediting the produce of the various States through which it is carried, and thus doing more towards developing the resources of the country than might otherwise have been effected in the course of centuries.

The canals that have been thus noticed form but a small part of the artificial inland navigation of the United States, as appears from the list already given. The individual works are, indeed, too numerous to admit of their description here; but enough has been said to show the energy with which these public improvements are taken up and completed by the American citizens, and to prove the judgment with which their estimates of advantage have been formed. The New York canals were executed with capital borrowed on the credit of the State: already a large part of their cost has been realised from the tolls, and in a few years the State will be in possession of an unincumbered and splendid income from this source, which will lighten considerably the burthen of taxation to the community. The tolls in each year, from 1820 to 1835 (which may be said to comprise the whole period of the existence of canals in the State, or, indeed, of the Union), has been as follow:—

1820	5800 dollars.	1828 ...	893,200 dollars.
1821	15,400 ,,	1829 ...	866,600 ,,
1822	68,200 ,,	1830 ...	1,125,800 ,,
1823	163,000 ,,	1831 ...	1,303,600 ,,
1824	363,500 ,,	1832 ...	1,310,000 ,,
1825	603,400 ,,	1833 ...	1,559,400 ,,
1826	812,200 ,,	1834 ...	1,427,400 ,,
1827	916,800 ,,	1835 ...	1,584,800 ,,

Chapter IV.

STEAM-NAVIGATION.

First Attempts at Steam Navigation—Steam-Vessels Built 1814 to 1836—Steam-Vessels employed in British Empire 1836—Annual progress 1814 to 1836—Changes effected by this Invention—Its application to Commerce—Preparations for its extension—Passage Vessels to America—To India—Steam Trading Vessels employed in Coasting and Foreign Trades—Steam-Vessels belonging to various Foreign Countries.

The application of steam-power to the purpose of propelling vessels through the water, although proposed one hundred years ago by Jonathan Hulls, and attempted in France, in the United States of America, and on the Forth and Clyde Canal between the years 1781 and 1790, was not successfully accomplished until after the beginning of the present century. The first practical application of this important improvement was made by Fulton, who, putting in execution the instruction he had gained from Mr. Miller, of Dalswinton, by witnessing his experiments in the Forth and Clyde Canal, established a steam-boat in 1806 or 1807, which plied successfully on the river Hudson, between New York and Albany—a distance of 160 miles. The first steam-boat that was worked for hire in this kingdom was the Comet, a small vessel of 40 feet keel and 10½ feet beam, with an engine of three-horse power, which plied with passengers on the Clyde in 1811; two years later the Elizabeth, of eight-horse power, and the Clyde, of fourteen-horse power, were placed on the same river. Since that time the progress of this invention has been rapid, to a degree that could never have been anticipated.

The number and tonnage of steam-vessels built and registered in the United Kingdom, and the British Colonies in each year, from 1814 to 1836, have been as follow:—

Steam-Vessels Built and Registered in the United Kingdom and the British Colonies.

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		U. Kingdom.		Planta-tions.		Total.	
Years.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.
1814	..	..	5	285	..	..	5	285	1	387	6	672
1815	2	161	7	625	..	..	9	786	1	608	10	1394
1816	4	298	4	270	..	..	8	568	1	670	9	1238
1817	4	227	3	194	..	..	7	421	3	1633	9	2054
1818	3	1124	3	216	..	..	6	1340	3	1198	9	2538
1819	2	175	2	167	..	..	4	342	..	..	4	342
1820	3	102	4	403	1	150	8	655	1	116	9	771
1821	12	1463	10	1545	..	..	22	3008	2	258	23	3266
1822	23	2080	4	369	..	..	27	2449	1	185	28	2634
1823	17	2344	2	125	..	..	19	2469	1	52	20	2521
1824	12	1687	5	547	..	..	17	2234	..	..	17	2234
1825	19	2600	5	403	..	..	24	3003	5	1189	29	4192
1826	50	5920	22	2718	..	..	72	8638	4	404	76	9042
1827	18	2264	9	994	1	118	28	3376	2	408	30	3784
1828	25	1687	5	352	..	..	30	2039	1	246	31	2285
1829	13	1080	3	671	..	..	16	1751	..	..	16	1751
1830	10	931	8	814	..	..	18	1745	1	481	19	2226
1831	24	2054	7	695	..	..	31	2749	5	1687	36	4436
1832	19	943	14	1908	..	..	33	2851	5	1239	38	4090
1833	27	1964	6	964	..	..	33	2928	3	1017	36	3945
1834	26	3453	10	1675	..	..	36	5128	3	628	39	5756
1835	63	6844	23	4080	..	..	86	10,924	2	357	88	11,281
1836	43	5924	20	2834	..	..	63	8758	6	492	69	9709

From a return made by the Registrar-General of Shipping, it appears that in the year 1836, there were employed at different ports in the United Kingdom, and her Colonies, 600 steam-vessels, the aggregate burden of which was 67,969 tons, viz.—

In the Ports of England	388	Vessels	34,314 Tons.
,, Scotland	95	,,	11,588 ,,
,, Ireland	71	,,	13,460 ,,
In Guernsey, Jersey, &c.	7	,,	914 ,,
In the Colonies	39	,,	7693 ,,
	600		67,969

These were exclusive of vessels belonging to Government.

The progress in each year, from their first introduction, has been as follows:—

Steam-Vessels belonging to the British Empire, in each Year, from 1814 to 1836.

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		U. Kingdom.		Guernsey, &c.		B. Plantations.		Total.	
Ys.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	V.	Tons.
1814	..	..	1	69	..	..	1	69	..	..	1	387	2	456
1815	3	209	5	429	..	..	8	638	..	..	2	995	10	1633
1816	5	315	7	632	..	..	12	947	..	..	3	166	15	2612
1817	7	462	6	514	1	63	14	1039	..	..	5	2911	19	3950
1818	10	1586	8	683	1	63	19	2332	..	..	8	4109	27	6441
1819	11	1459	11	825	2	264	24	2548	..	..	8	4109	32	6657
1820	17	1639	14	1127	3	252	34	3018	..	..	9	4225	43	7243
1821	29	3377	26	2344	4	330	59	6051	..	..	10	4483	69	10,534
1822	52	5322	28	2701	5	434	85	8457	..	..	11	4668	96	13,125
1823	69	7527	26	2347	6	487	101	10,361	..	..	10	3792	111	14,153
1824	80	8642	29	2682	5	409	114	11,733	2	214	10	3792	126	15,739
1825	112	12,280	36	3992	3	192	151	15,764	2	214	15	4309	168	20,287
1826	162	16,791	51	4496	15	2899	228	24,186	2	214	18	4558	248	28,958
1827	173	17,734	59	5390	21	4194	253	27,318	2	214	20	4958	275	32,490
1828	191	18,367	56	4903	25	4740	272	28,010	2	214	19	3808	293	32,032
1829	203	19,085	57	5399	27	5017	287	29,501	2	214	15	2568	304	32,283
1830	203	18,831	61	5687	31	5491	295	30,009	3	330	17	3105	315	33,444
1831	223	20,304	62	5777	35	6181	320	32,262	4	433	23	4750	347	37,445
1832	235	20,813	73	7205	40	7220	348	35,238	4	474	28	5957	380	41,669
1833	268	23,290	71	7075	43	7757	382	38,122	5	555	28	6340	415	45,017
1834	301	27,059	77	8187	46	8183	424	43,429	6	711	32	6595	462	50,735
1835	344	30,351	85	9833	68	12,583	497	52,767	6	718	35	7035	538	60,520
1836	388	34,314	95	11,588	71	13,460	554	59,362	7	914	39	7693	600	67,969

The celerity and the certainty with which voyages are performed by the aid of steam power, joined to their superiority in regard to safety, have long occasioned steam-vessels to be preferred as passage-vessels wherever they can be employed; and within the last five years they have, in a great degree, superseded the use of sailing vessels for trading purposes also, where the distance to be accomplished is not very great, and where the bulk of the goods to be conveyed is not considerable in proportion to their value.—A very large portion of the trade between Hamburgh and the ports of the United Kingdom is now carried on by means of steam-vessels.

When the public has been for some time accustomed

to the possession of any great improvement, the difficulties and disadvantages which it has been the means of removing, cease to be remembered, and we no longer value at their just rate the benefits which it has brought. The following paragraph extracted from a journal recently published, places in so strong and just a point of view some of the advantages which we owe to steam navigation, that no apology is required for its insertion here:—

"It is scarcely half a century ago since tilt-boats for the conveyance of passengers to and from London to Gravesend were, in shape and speed, just what the Trinity-House ballast lighters are at present, and taking four tides and more for the completion of the voyage. They were succeeded by the Dundee boats, which were, as fast sailers, both the wonder and admiration of all who witnessed the improvement. They, however, were of the most inconvenient nature, as the passengers were frequently not only called upon to embark in the middle of the night, in order to have the first of the flood, and after tacking and beating about, together with sometimes too much wind, sometimes too little wind, or none at all, besides being huddled in a low inconvenient cabin, were frequently, after being six or eight hours on the water, compelled to land at Woolwich, Blackwall, or Greenwich, and then have to find their way in the best manner they could to the Metropolis. At length the progress of science introduced steam for the ferry, which, however, at first, generally took from five to seven hours to arrive in London, a length of time, it was considered a desideratum to lessen. On Sunday last the Diamond started from the Gravesend pier at 4 P.M. landed her passengers in London and returned, and at 9 minutes before 8 o'clock was again at her moorings off the town-pier; thus performing the two voyages, a distance of 64

miles in 3 hours and 40 minutes, including stoppages." It should have been stated that the vessel had the advantage of a favourable tide both in ascending and descending the river.

The facility in moving from place to place, joined to the great economy both of time and of money that have accompanied the adoption of this mode of propelling vessels, have excited the locomotive propensities of the English people in a most remarkable degree. The countless thousands who now annually pass in steam-packets up and down the river Thames, seem almost wholly to have been led to travel by this cheap and commodious means that have been thus presented to them, since the amount of journeying by land is by no means lessened. The number of passengers conveyed between London and Gravesend by steam packets in 1835 was ascertained by the collector of the pier dues at the latter town to have been 670,452, not one in a hundred of whom would have been induced to make use of the Dundee boats just described. It was stated in evidence before a Committee of the House of Commons in 1836, that at least 1,057,000 passengers, including those to and from Gravesend, pass Blackwall in steam-vessels every year. In confirmation of the fact that the establishment of additional facility in travelling is embraced by persons who would not otherwise be induced to quit their homes, we may refer to the continually increasing number of licences for stage coaches issued every year from the Stamp Office, and to the great and constantly-increasing number of omnibusses which are continually traversing the great thoroughfares of London without displacing the hackney carriages which were previously in use. The number of passengers conveyed by the Hull and Selby steam-packets

in the 12 months which preceded the opening of the Leeds and Selby railway was 33,882, whereas in the 12 months that followed that event, the number conveyed was 62,105.

The published lists of steam-vessels belonging to different ports in the United Kingdom show the extent to which this new mode of voyaging is adopted by the public. Scarcely any two ports of consequence can be pointed out between which steam communication is not maintained as well for the conveyance of passengers as for the transmission of goods. Besides this, the communication is regularly maintained with all the principal neighbouring ports on the continent of Europe. From London vessels proceed to the French coast almost every day; to Holland three times a-week; to Belgium as frequently; to Hamburg twice a-week, and to Lisbon and Cadiz every week. From the coast of Kent, Sussex and Hampshire daily departures take place to France. From Hull three vessels depart every week for Hamburg, and one is despatched to Rotterdam; the greater part of the important traffic which formerly was carried on in sailing vessels between those ports is now conveyed through the more quick and certain agency of steam.

The table next to be given is interesting, because it exhibits a complete statistical history of steam navigation as applied to commercial purposes in this country, from its first adoption to the end of 1836. One of the most remarkable circumstances connected with this history is the extraordinary rapidity of its development. When first adopted few persons were so sanguine as to suppose that the utility of steam-vessels would ever be experienced except in inland river navigation or for short distances along the coast; a very few years have sufficed for their general introduction in all the seas and

rivers of Europe, and we appear to be at this moment upon the eve of their employment as a means of drawing closer the connexion between the old and the new world. It is confidently expected that large and powerful steam ships will, in the course of one or two years at farthest, be constantly passing between this kingdom and the United States of America, introducing thus a degree of certainty into the correspondence between the two countries, which cannot fail to be of immense advantage to the most important branch of foreign trade in which our merchants are engaged. The voyage made in 1826 by the Enterprize to Calcutta has been considered a failure, and may have had considerable influence in deterring our merchants from undertaking distant steam voyages. Another experiment of the same kind is at this moment in the course of accomplishment, and apparently with better hopes of success. The years that have elapsed since the voyage of the Enterprize was accomplished, have, as might reasonably be expected, brought forward many improvements in what was then an infant science; and although we may not, perhaps, witness in our day the establishment of a line of packets to India, round the Cape of Good Hope, this will be principally owing to the greater facility that attends the communication through the Mediterranean, and not because the other route is impracticable or even difficult.

A Committee of the House of Commons was appointed, in June 1837, to inquire into the best means of establishing a communication by steam with India by way of the Red Sea. The inquiry thus begun was cut short by the sudden termination of the Session, but the evidence collected by the Committee contains information of great interest, tending to show the advantages to commerce that must result from the great

acceleration of correspondence that would be thus accomplished.

It was stated to this Committee by Sir John Hobhouse, President of the Board of Controul, that in August, 1834, the Directors of the East India Company, acting in furtherance of a recommendation made by a Committee of the House of Commons which sat in that year, sent directions to the Governor General of India to despatch a steam-ship at stated periods from Bombay to Suez. In order still further to expedite the transmission of mails between India and England, the Governor of Bombay, and subsequently the home authorities in England established a dromedary post from Bagdad to Damascus and thence to Beyrout on the coast of the Mediterranean, to which port the voyage of the steam-vessel that before plied to Alexandria was extended.

The consequence of all these arrangements has been, a much more rapid communication with India than has ever before been known, in confirmation of which fact, and to show the opinion upon this important subject formed by the most competent judges, the following extract is given from a dispatch sent in September, 1836, by the Government of Bombay to the Court of Directors :—"We beg leave to offer to your Honourable Court our congratulations on the rapidity with which your wishes have of late been conveyed to all parts of your Indian possessions. The three last overland mails have brought dispatches from London to Bombay in 58, 45, and 64 days; and those intended for Calcutta have been forwarded in 10 days. We have witnessed the energetic impulse this early intelligence has given to the mercantile interest, and the unbounded satisfaction it has diffused throughout all classes of the community. It is, indeed,

undeniable, that a quick interchange of information is of the first advantage in commerce, and in the conduct of all public business, while it is equally true that its effect on the minds of those who serve the Honourable Company long and faithfully in this distant land, is to deprive the painful feeling of separation from their homes and country of half its bitterness. We beg respectfully to press these reflections on the notice of your Honourable Court, with our earnest prayer that you will ere long grant to India the much-desired boon of frequent and regular communication with Europe, by the employment of a sufficient number of steam-vessels for that purpose." The Dispatch, from which the foregoing extract is taken, arrived in England early in the present year (1837), and no time was lost in attempting to carry into effect the recommendation which it conveyed. At first a negociation was opened with some private individuals, who proposed to perform the service required by means of a joint-stock company, but so many serious objections to this course were urged by different branches of the Government, that it was altogether abandoned, and early in June, 1837, an arrangement was concluded between the Government and the Directors of the East India Company for the establishment of a regular monthly steam communication between this country and India by way of the Red Sea, upon the following basis:—

The Government undertakes the transmission of the monthly mails between Great Britain and Alexandria, at the sole charge of the public, and the East India Company undertakes the transmission of these mails between Alexandria and Bombay, upon condition that one-half of the expense incurred in the purchase and navigation of steam-vessels, and of any other expense incurred in the service, is defrayed by the Government, which is to receive the

whole money collected for postage of letters between London and Bombay. This arrangement was to take immediate effect, and the steam-vessels belonging to the East India Company were ordered to be employed forthwith, two for the conveyance, on alternate months, of the mails from Bombay to Mocha, and the third for their further conveyance from Mocha to Suez. A fourth vessel is to be immediately provided, and the necessary contracts for the supply of coals at the several stations have been made. A further economy of time of from 4 to 6 days being obtainable by sending the mails overland to Marseilles, instead of transmitting them by steam-packets from Falmouth through the straits of Gibraltar, it has been arranged that on the 6th of every month a Government messenger shall be sent in charge of the India mail from London to Marseilles, from which port steam-packets are despatched three times every month by the French Government. By this arrangement the distance is shortened to the extent of more than 1000 miles. The direct distance by way of Marseilles and Malta being 5,238, and by way of Falmouth and Malta 6,310 miles: the distance by the Cape of Good Hope is 10,580 nautical miles.

The number of letters and newspapers received at the ship-letter department of the Post-office from and to Ceylon, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, in each of the 3 years ending 5th October 1834, 1835, and 1836, were as follow:—

	1834	1835	1836
From Ceylon	6,279	4,204	7,278
—— Bombay	35,536	40,505	33,306
—— Madras	29,371	37,738	38,720
—— Calcutta	87,747	84,894	100,611
	158,933	167,341	179,915

	1834	1835	1836
To Ceylon	8,639	8,326	9,673
— Bombay	24,126	24,862	24,078
— Madras	35,285	35,250	35,470
— Calcutta	37,689	38,341	42,712
	105,739	106,779	111,933

In the last of these three years, the number of letters from India, exclusive of those addressed to soldiers and seamen, was 149,504; the letters to soldiers and seamen were 9,856; the number of newspapers was 12,649, and of franked letters 7,906, making together 179,915, as above stated.

It is deserving of remark that while the transmission of letters by the overland route has been increasing, the number sent by the old mode of conveyance has increased likewise in a considerable degree. It must be remembered, however, that the alterations made in 1833 in the constitution of the East India Company have tended to give a great and a growing degree of animation to the commercial correspondence between India and Europe beyond that which existed before that time.

There is reason for believing that the passage by the Mediterranean route to India will soon be further facilitated by the construction of a railroad between Cairo and Suez, which would open a more direct communication than the dromedary post already mentioned. The isthmus has already been surveyed for this object by an English engineer, and a considerable part of the materials for the railway has been collected by the Pacha of Egypt. When finished, the distance between Cairo and Suez (80 miles) might be traversed in four hours. The traffic between those places is at present considerable in the articles of coffee, drugs, and grain. The time at

present consumed in passing across the desert is three days; if this were reduced to four hours, and the charge for conveyance were moderate, the trade would assuredly be much increased, and other goods would find their way from India to Europe by the same means. Silk, spices, gums, shawls, and various other articles which are valuable in proportion to their bulk, would be sent by this route rather than round by the Cape of Good Hope, because the saving of time would more than compensate for the difference in the expense. It is calculated that goods of the description just mentioned might be sent from Bombay to Marseilles in thirty days; and with regard to a package of Cachemere shawls, valued at 20,000*l.*, there can be no doubt which route would be preferred. As regards the risk of plunder, it is well known that, through the exertions of the present ruler of Egypt, the property of travellers passes now as safely throughout that country as it does between London and Manchester.

The desire of establishing a more rapid communication with Europe by means of steam power has long been very great among the Europeans in India, and not only with them, but also among the more enlightened natives of Hindustan. This desire has been shown in the most unequivocal manner by the voluntary subscriptions made for the advancement of the object, and which have amounted to 30,000*l.*, one half of which sum was contributed by native Indians.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Steam-Vessels, which entered the Ports of the United Kingdom, and cleared from the same, in each Year, from 1820 to 1836; distinguishing the Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade from those engaged in Foreign Voyages, and separating Foreign from British Vessels.

Years.	Inwards.								Outwards.							
	Coasting Trade.		Foreign Trade.						Coasting Trade.		Foreign Trade.					
	British.		British.		Foreign.		Total.		British.		British.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.	V.	Tons.	Vess.	Tons.
1820	9	505	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1821	188	20,028	..	..	..	..	..	..	158	6166	..	..	..	..	..	..
1822	215	31,596	159	14,497	10	520	169	15,017	295	42,743	111	12,388	..	..	111	12,388
1823	434	55,146	129	8942	7	364	136	9306	647	73,424	108	9027	7	364	115	9391
1824	888	124,073	139	10,893	6	312	145	11,205	1197	147,523	208	15,796	8	416	216	16,212
1825	1666	257,734	196	16,155	11	652	197	16,807	1916	279,384	256	19,685	13	756	269	20,441
1826	2810	452,995	334	32,631	38	2236	372	34,887	2833	418,096	268	27,206	31	1742	299	28,948
1827	4404	737,020	443	50,285	74	4538	517	54,843	5617	820,361	430	47,322	43	2566	482	49,888
1828	5591	914,414	482	52,679	58	3406	540	56,085	6893	1,009,834	472	51,887	31	1802	503	53,689
1829	5792	978,981	497	51,754	3	405	500	52,159	6875	1,006,041	428	47,480	22	1486	450	48,966
1830	6796	1,073,506	500	62,613	42	7781	602	70,394	6765	1,078,100	475	51,372	53	10,274	528	61,646
1831	7072	1,161,012	537	65,946	85	11,345	622	77,291	7037	1,158,059	563	67,930	57	12,046	620	79,976
1832	7769	1,256,805	537	71,493	74	7000	611	78,493	7732	1,255,436	564	73,898	71	12,636	635	86,534
1833	9070	1,513,684	681	98,224	51	3708	732	101,932	9083	1,518,159	704	102,639	45	6704	749	109,243
1834	10,077	1,761,752	938	146,720	12	3164	1000	149,884	9972	1,749,698	896	137,607	57	12,018	953	149,625
1835	11,208	2,186,600	1015	170,151	18	5058	1033	175,209	11,118	2,170,971	1146	189,305	77	13,826	1223	203,131
1836	12,988	2,528,216	1122	195,722	50	10,948	1172	206,670	12,654	2,468,327	1225	202,499	188	23,514	1413	226,013

The above account does not include vessels arriving and departing in ballast or with passengers only, which are not required to enter at the Custom House. Steam-vessels were not employed in this kingdom for conveying goods coastwise previous to 1820, and, except for carrying passengers, such vessels were not engaged in foreign trade earlier than 1822.

It will be seen from the foregoing account that no complete statement can be afforded of the intercourse carried on by means of steam-vessels, since those only which convey merchandise are made to appear in the books of the Custom House. The peculiar adaptation of steam-vessels for the conveyance of passengers might lead to the belief that a very large proportion of that intercourse is consequently excluded from the official statement; but this, upon inquiry, does not appear to be the fact. Considerable pains were taken in 1834 to ascertain the number and tonnage of steam-vessels that arrived at, and departed from, the ports of the United Kingdom, in each of the years 1832 and 1833. The result of this inquiry is given in the following page, and although it cannot be offered as a complete or accurate account, there is little doubt that it presents a near approximation to the truth.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Steam-Vessels that arrived at, and departed from, the Ports of the United Kingdom, including their repeated Voyages, in each of the Years 1832 and 1833; distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, and stating whether they conveyed Goods or Passengers, or both.

	1832.		1833.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
With goods only.				
Inwards. From Foreign Parts				
English	7	240	13	636
French	4	288	1	72
Coastwise	54	5868	63	6554
Outwards. To Foreign Parts				
English	9	634	7	317
French	..	..	4	288
Coastwise	155	23,336	191	26,174
With goods and passengers.				
Inwards. From Foreign Parts				
English	375	53,330	479	75,619
French	62	4664	47	3384
Dutch	8	2248	4	1124
Coastwise	8299	1,298,111	9524	1,459,963
Outwards. To Foreign Parts				
English	392	54,398	520	81,471
French	35	2520	25	1800
Dutch	36	10,116	16	4496
Coastwise	8265	1,293,817	9466	1,458,646
With passengers only.				
Inwards. From Foriegn Parts				
English	840	61,151	966	81,906
French	16	1022	44	3128
Dutch	29	8149	13	3653
Coastwise	1815	185,337	1741	167,146
Outwards. To Foreign Parts				
English	711	43,084	779	50,133
French	37	2654	58	4176
Dutch	..	..	..	..
Coastwise	1809	184,495	1744	167,269
Total, whether with goods only, with Goods and passengers, or with passengers only, viz.				
Inwards. From Foreign Parts				
English	1222	114,821	1458	158,161
French	82	5974	92	6584
Dutch	37	10,397	17	4777
Coastwise	10,168	1,489,316	11,328	1,633,663
	11,509	1,620,508	12,895	1,803,185
Outwards. To Foreign Parts				
English	1112	98,116	1306	131,921
French	72	5174	87	6264
Dutch	36	10,116	16	4496
Coastwise	10,329	1,501,648	11,401	1,652,089
	11,549	1,615,054	12,810	1,794,770
Total—Inwards and Outwards	23,058	3,235,562	25,705	3,597,955

It is not in England alone that this great invention has been encouraged. Every European power of eminence that contains a seaport within its territory, as well as several of the minor States, have vessels *steaming* under their respective flags. In the United States of America, as might readily be supposed, this method of conveyance for passengers and goods has been adopted with all the energy for which the American citizens are so remarkable. In Mexico, Hayti, and, with the exception of Brazil, in the independent States of South America, where steam-vessels are fitted to be of the greatest utility, there are not any now in existence; and in the Brazilian empire, there are only three small boats belonging to the single port of Rio Janeiro.

The following statement, showing the number and description of steam-vessels belonging to foreign ports and countries in which there are resident British Consuls, is derived from Returns made to the Government at the end of 1836 and the beginning of 1837, and which returns were printed in December, 1837, by order of the House of Commons:—

Country.	Ports.	Number of Steam-Ves.	Their aggregate Tonnage.	Aggregate Power of Engines,	Largest Vessels.	
					Tonn.	Power.
				H. P.		H. P.
Denmark...	Elsineur and Copenhagen	5	625	311	200	90
Sweden	Gottenburg	1	80	60	..	..
	Stockholm.....	26	1120	1184	100	120
Russia.....	St. Petersburg	26	Not stated.	2075	..	240
Prussia.....	Dantzig	3	502	200	192	90
Mecklenburg	Rostock	1	82	40	..	..
Hans Towns	Lubeck.....	2	50	68	33	40
	Hamburgh.....	3	..	192	144	80
Holland....	Amsterdam	2	452	..	352	120
	Rotterdam	26	4745	2304	500	500
Belgium....	Antwerp.....	1	225	224	..	..
France	Havre	17	3149	1415	400	120
	Brest.....	1	45	10	..	..
	Nantes	21	Not stated.	361	..	25
	La Rochelle and Rochfort	2	50	28	28	18
	Bordeaux.....	17	1239	387	136	45
	Marseilles	9	2039	670	333	120
	Toulon	3	300	150	100	50
Spain	Cadiz and Seville	2	390	70	240	40
	Carthagena	2	236	40	118	20
Portugal....	Lisbon	3	490	220	280	120
	Oporto	1	300	160	..	..
Sardinia ...	Genoa	4	679	170	300	90
	Cagliari	1	300	100	..	..
Tuscany ...	Leghorn	3	869	335	375	140
Sicily	Naples.....	8	2061	745	432	180
Austria.....	Trieste, Venice, and Fiume	6	Not stated.	440	500	120
Turkey	Trebizond	1	178	120	..	..
	Alexandria	1	910	400	..	..
Barbary	Algiers	8	Not stated.	1550	..	..
U. States of America..	New York	39	14,855	Not stated.	..	..
	Philadelphia.....	11	3427	1224	563	186
	Charleston	14	3179	712	552	125
	Boston.....	12	1864	483	573	120
	Baltimore, Georgetown, Washington, and Alexandria	19	5771	1570	542	100
	Mobile	40	6349	Not stated.	273	..
	Norfolk, Virginia	4	1186	380	382	140
	Savannah	16	2790	783	241	80
	Portland, Maine.....	2	758	240	445	180
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro	3	144	48	48	16

Among the particulars which the Consuls were required to give relative to this subject, was the place where the engines were manufactured. The Returns made from Russia do not comply with this part of the order, which has otherwise been pretty well attended to. In the United States of America the machinery, as might be expected, is almost wholly the production of native engineers, only six out of 157 steam-vessels belonging to the States being furnished with English engines. If we exclude from the account these vessels, and also, for the reason just given, the 26 Russian vessels—although there is reason to believe that the greater part if not the whole of the machinery of the latter is of English construction—there will remain on the list 183 vessels, of which 97, or more than one half, are indebted for their machinery to English engineers.

It is not unlikely that the Consular Returns, from which the above abstract has been made, may omit some vessels of this kind in their enumerations, but these omissions cannot be to any great extent; and it thus appears that the progress made by this country in the adoption of this new and great invention is far greater than anything hitherto accomplished by all other countries in th aggregate.

Chapter V.

RAILWAYS.

Earliest Employment of Railroads in England—Number of Acts of Parliament for incorporating Railroad Companies—Lines completed 1801-1837—Traffic on Liverpool and Manchester line—Effect upon Post Communications—Anticipated Improvements—Pecuniary Saving to the Public—Sums expended in obtaining Acts of Incorporation—Government Survey of Lines in Ireland—Railways in Belgium—In America.

It has been said that railways were first brought to use in this country at the beginning of the seventeenth century, when they were employed in some of the Newcastle collieries. The railways then constructed were very different from the scientifically constructed works to which we are now accustomed to apply that name, and it was long before any progress was made towards their improvement. They were at first constructed altogether of timber, and it was not until 1767 that the first experiment was made, and that upon a very small scale, to determine the advantage of substituting iron for the less durable material. Nor does it appear that this experiment was successful or followed by any practical result, for in a volume published by Mr. Carr, in 1797, he sets up his claim to be considered the inventor of cast-iron rails. The railways which were constructed up to the beginning of the present century were all private undertakings, and each was confined to the use of the establishment—generally a colliery—in which it occurred.

The public railways of England are strictly creations of the present century. It was in 1801 that the first Act of Parliament for the construction of a work of this kind received the sanction of the Legislature. The number passed since that time has been—

1801.....1	1812.....2	1823..... 1	1831..... 9
1802.....2	1814.....1	1824..... 2	1832..... 8
1803.....1	1815.....1	1825..... 5	1833.....11
1804.....1	1816.....1	1826..... 6	1834.....14
1808.....1	1817.....1	1827..... 6	1835.....18
1809.....2	1818.....1	1828.....11	1836.....35
1810.....1	1819.....1	1829..... 9	1837.....14
1811.....3	1821.....1	1830..... 8	

making in all 178 Acts. The following list comprises all of the works contemplated by these Acts which have been completed for use up to the present time; many others are in the course of construction, and some of great importance are expected to be opened in the course of 1838. The principal of these are the lines from London to Birmingham, 112 miles; the Great Western, from London to Bristol, 114 miles; and the London and Southampton, 80 miles. The estimated cost of these three lines is 8,600,000*l.*

Date of Act.	Name of Railway.	Places between which it passes.	Length in Miles.	Cost of Construction.
				£.
1801	Surrey	Wandsworth and Croydon .	9	60,000
1802	Carmarthenshire . .	Llanelly and Llanfihangel, Aberbythick	16	35,000
	Sirhowey	Newport and Sirhowey furnaces (Monmouthshire) .	11	45,000
1803	Croydon, Merstham, and Godstone	Croydon and Reigate—a branch to Godstone . . .	15¼	90,000
1804	Oystermouth	Swansea and Oystermouth—branch to Morriston . .	6	12,000
1808	Kilmarnock	Kilmarnock and Troon . .	9¾	40,000
1809	Forest of Dean . . .	Newnham and Churchway Engine	7¼	125,000
	Severn and Wye . . .	Lidbrook and Newern, and branches	26	110,000
1810	Monmouth	Howler Slade and Monmouth		22,000
1811	Berwick and Kelso . .	Spittal and Kelso		
	Hay	Brecon and Parton Cross .	24	50,000
	Llanfihangel	Abergavenny and Llanfihangel Crucorney	6¼	20,000

Date of Act.	Name of Railway.	Places between which it passes.	Length in Miles.	Cost of Construction.
				£.
1812	Grosmont	Llanfihangel Crucorney and Llangua Bridge	7	13,000
	Penrhynmaur . . .	Penrhynmaur Coalworks and Llanbedgroch	7	10,000
1814	Mamhilad	Mamhilad and Usk Bridge .	5	6,000
1815	Gloucester & Cheltenham	Gloucester and Cheltenham	9	50,000
1817	Mansfield and Pinxton .	Mansfield and Alfreton . .	8¼	32,800
1818	Kington	Parton Cross and Kington .	14	23,000
1819	Plymouth and Dartmoor	Plymouth and Lydford . .	30	35,000
1821	Stratford and Moreton .	Stratford-upon-Avon and Moreton-in-Marsh . . .	18½	50,000
1822	Stockton and Darlington	Stockton and Witton Park Colliery (thro' Darlington) .	40	250,000
1824	Redruth and Chasewater .	Redruth and Point Quay and branches	14½	22,500
	Monkland & Kirkintilloch	Palace Craig & Kirkintilloch	10¼	25,000
1825	Rumney	Abertyswg and Sirhowey Railway	21¾	47,100
	West Lothian	Ryall and Shotts	23	40,700
	Cromford and High Peak	Cromford and Whaley Bridge	34	164,000
	Nantlle	Nantlle Pool and Caernarvon		20,000
	Portland	Portland Stone Quarries and Portland Castle	2	5,000
	Duffryn Llynvi . . .	Llangoueyd and Perth Cawl	16¾	60,000
1826	Ballochney	Airdrie and Ballochney . .	5½	18,425
	Dulais	Aber Dulais and Cwm Dulais	8¾	10,000
	Dundee and Newtyle .	Dundee and Newtyle . . .	11	50,000
	Edinburgh and Dalkeith	Edinburgh and Newbattle Abbey	17¼	125,000
	Garnkirk and Glasgow .	Gartsberrie Bridge & Glasgow	8¼	40,000
	Heck and Wentbridge .	Heckbridge and Wentbridge	7½	18,900
	Liverpool & Manchester	Liverpool and Manchester .	31	1,195,156
1827	Canterbury & Whitstable	Canterbury and Whitstable .	6¼	47,000
	Johnstone and Ardrossan	Johnstone and Ardrossan .	22½	95,600
1828	Bristol & Gloucestershire	Bristol and Coalpit Heath .	9	45,000
	Bolton and Leigh . .	Bolton and Liverpool and Manchester Railway . .	9	69,000
	Bridgend	Bridgend and Cefn Gribbwr .	4¼	6,000
	Llanelly			
	Clarence	Samphire Beacon and Sim Pasture and branches . .	45¼	240,000
1829	Warrington and Newton	Warrington and Newton, on Liverpool and Manchester Railway	4½	53,000
	Wishaw and Coltness .	Cambusnethan Parish and Old Monkland		60,000
1830	Leeds and Selby . .	Leeds and Selby	20	210,000
	Leicester & Swannington	Leicester and Swannington .	15¾	90,000
1831	Dublin and Kingstown .	Dublin and Kingstown . .	5¾	237,000
1833	London and Greenwich .	London and Deptford . .	3	600,000
	Newcastle and Carlisle .	Newcastle and Carlisle . .	60	540,000
	Grand Junction . . .	Birmingham and the Liverpool and Manchester Line at Newton		1,500,000

It is a singular fact that of all the railways constructed and contemplated up to the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester line, not one was undertaken with a view to the conveyance of passengers. In the prospectus published by the projectors of that work, it was indeed held out as probable that one half of the number of persons then travelling by coaches between the two towns might avail themselves of the railway in consideration of the lower rate for which they would be conveyed, and the Directors expected to realise an income of 20,000*l.* per annum from that source; but the chief inducement held out to subscribers was the conveyance of raw cotton, manufactured goods, coals, and cattle. The following Table, containing a statement of the actual traffic upon the railway from its opening in September, 1830, to Midsummer, 1836, will show how much the anticipations of the projectors were at variance with the result. The great success attending this splendid work being in a principal degree attributable to the passengers conveyed by it, the chief inducement thenceforward to embark in similar undertakings has been the number of travellers and not the amount of goods to be conveyed. Hitherto it has been found, in nearly every case where a railroad adapted for carrying passengers has been brought into operation, that the amount of travelling between the two extremities of the line has been quadrupled. In the case of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, the income derived from this source has enabled the Company to meet a large amount of extraordinary expenses, and to divide regularly 10 per cent. annually upon the capital, although the outlay in the construction of the work has been more than double the sum contemplated in the original estimates.

	From 16th Sept to 31st Dec. 1830.	From 1st Jan. to 30th June, 1831.	From 1st July to 31st Dec. 1831.	From 1st Jan. to 30th June, 1832.	From 1st July to 31st Dec. 1832.	From 1st Jan. to 30th June, 1833.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Merchandise between Liverpool and Manchester .	1,433	35,865	52,224	54,174	61,995	68,284
Road Traffic . . .	..	378	2,347	3,707	6,011	8,712
Between Liverpool and Bolton Junction	..	6,827	10,917	14,720	18,836	19,461
Coal	2,630	2,889	8,396	29,456	39,940	41,375
Passengers booked at Company's offices.	No. 71,951	No. 188,726	No. 256,321	No. 174,122	No. 182,823	No. 171,421
Number of Trips—						
With Passengers .	No Acc.	2,259	2,944	2,636	3,363	3,262
With Goods . .	..	1,873	2,298	2,248	1,679	2,244
With Coal . . .	..	293	150	234	211	164

	From 1st July to 31st Dec., 1833.	From 1st Jan. to 30th June, 1834.	From 1st July to 31st Dec., 1834.	From 1st Jan. to 30th June, 1835.	From 1st July to 31st Dec., 1835.	From 1st Jan. to 30th June, 1836.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Merchandise between Liverpool and Manchester .	69,806	69,522	72,577	76,448	79,114	81,415
Road Traffic . . .	9,733	15,201	11,482	12,282	15,015	14,983
Between Liverpool and Bolton Junction	18,708	19,633	22,321	24,917	22,853	21,219
Coal	40,134	46,039	53,298	55,444	60,802	68,893
Passengers booked at Company's offices.	No. 215,071	No. 200,676	No. 235,961	No. 205,741	No. 268,106	No. 202,848
Number of Trips—						
With Passengers .	3,253	3,317	3,395	3,222	3,347	3,353
With Goods . .	2,587	2,499	2,108	2,091	2,132	2,157
With Coal . . .	37	32	161	355	473	536

It might have been expected that the greater facility of personal communication between Liverpool and Manchester afforded by the railroad would have diminished in a very sensible degree the number of letters passing between the two towns; such, however, is not the fact; the Post-office revenue derived from such letters having

been actually increased more than 6 per cent., as appears by the following statement :—

	Total amount of Postage.	Cost of conveyance.
1828 . .	£13,432	£223
1829 . .	12,759	223
1830 . .	12,701	223
Average	£12,964	£223
1831 . .	13,506	465
1832 . .	13,336	535
1833 . .	14,556	645
Average	£13,799	£548

The mail was first sent by the railway on the 11th November, 1830. The result here stated is no doubt attributable to the celerity with which letters are conveyed and answers despatched. Since the opening of the railway between the two towns, the deliveries of letters are as frequent and as rapid as the deliveries by the twopenny post between the opposite ends of London. It will be interesting to ascertain when the longer line of railway between Birmingham and Liverpool shall have been open for a sufficient time, whether an equal impulse is thereby given to correspondence along the line. The Post-office authorities have lost no time in availing themselves of the means which it offers for expediting the transmission of letters. The London mails, which are despatched at 8 o'clock in the evening, now arrive at Manchester and Liverpool in time for the delivery of letters before noon of the following day, and of course the transmission of letters from these towns to the Metropolis is equally rapid. Besides this, there are 740 mail-bags taken up and delivered every day at the various stations along the line, affording a stimulus to business which cannot fail to be beneficial. The like ad-

vantage will, of course, be made available upon other lines as they are completed, so that the fulfilment of the reasonable expectations formed from this application of steam power, will, before long, bring Edinburgh, in this respect, almost as near to the Metropolis as any one of the towns now is which lies beyond the limit of the three-penny Post delivery. Under the existing regulations indeed, it takes as long a time to convey a letter from Kingsland to Camberwell, a distance of only 5 miles, as will then suffice for its transmission from the Scottish to the English capital.

It would be unreasonable to limit our anticipations of improvement under the railway system to results equal to what has been hitherto obtained. The first work of the kind, which has, and that unexpectedly, produced a marked economy of time in travelling, was opened in September 1830, and at once achieved so much in this respect, that the highest aim on the part of the projectors of most similar undertakings, has been to equal, without a thought of surpassing its performance. Already, however, has one among the able engineers engaged upon these works conceived the means for throwing that performance into the shade. It is known that a considerable accelleration of speed is attainable with a very small increased expense of motive power: the difficulty opposed to its employment for that end has been the greater danger of overturning the carriages which accompanies high velocities; and it appears reasonable that by the adoption of a wider base, this danger will be altogether removed. Mr. Brunel, the engineer employed for the construction of the line between London and Bristol, proposed, and is carrying into execution, this simple expedient; and as the first portion of this road will be opened for use in a few weeks from the time when this is written, the propriety of the alteration will soon

be made apparent. The *minimum* speed upon this railway will, according to the declared intention of the Directors, be 25 miles per hour, and the rate at which the mails and first-class carriages will be propelled, will be 35 to 40 miles per hour.

If it is unreasonable to set limits to the amount of improvements in those particulars which have been here considered, it must be equally unreasonable and indeed impossible to limit the modes in which this new agent in civilization may be brought to minister to the profit and convenience of society. The short lines hitherto opened have been imperfectly qualified for the full development of the system in all its various capabilities; and it seems scarcely possible to assign bounds to the good that will follow from the cheap, easy, and rapid communication it will offer between all parts, however distant from each other, of the kingdom. Every spot will by this means obtain a wider market for its productions, and have a wider field whence to draw its supplies. A great part of the money now actually expended upon the conveyance of persons and goods will be saved to the country, and become available capital for the extension of its commerce and the completion of still further improvements. According to a published statement of the working of the Liverpool and Manchester line, it appears that the gain thus produced to the public at large on that single road, amounts to very little short of a quarter of a million annually; viz.:—

2*s.* 6*d.* each on 500,000 passengers	£62,500
2*s.* 6*d.* per ton on 450,000 tons merchandise . .	56,250
2*s.* 0*d.* per ton on 1,240,000 tons of coal for the use of Liverpool and Manchester, the price of that article having been reduced to that extent by the opening of the railroad	124,000
	£242,750

In addition to this saving, it is fair to reckon the gains, beyond the ordinary profits of stock, yielded to the proprietors of the undertaking. The gain upon other and longer lines will be greater in respect of passengers, although it may not prove equal to what is here stated with reference to merchandise; but it cannot fail to be every way of immense importance, and to add most materially, in the course of years, to the available resources of the country.

There are other modes and particulars in which railways will prove themselves of benefit, but which are too numerous and too obvious to render their more particular notice in these pages either necessary or desirable.

The *laissez faire* system which is pursued in this country to such an extent, that it has become an axiom with the Government to undertake nothing, and to interfere with nothing which can be accomplished by individual enterprize, or by the associated means of private parties, has been pregnant with great loss and inconvenience to the country in carrying forward the railway system. Perhaps there never was an occasion in which the Government could with equal propriety have interfered to reconcile the conflicting interests involved, and to prevent the public injury arising from the false steps so likely to be made at first in bringing about a total revolution in the internal communications of the country. It is not meant by these remarks to assert that Government should have taken into its own hands the construction of all or any of the railroads called for by the wants of the community; but only to suggest the propriety and advantage that must have resulted from a preliminary inquiry, made by competent and uninterested professional men, with a view to ascertain the comparative advantages and facilities offered by different lines for the accomplish-

ment of the object in view. If this course had been adopted before any of the numerous projects were brought forward for the construction of lines of railway between all imaginable places, and if it had been laid down as a rule by the legislature that no such projected line could be sanctioned or even entertained by parliament which was not in accordance with the reports and recommendations of the government engineers, the saving of money would have been immense. The expensive contests between rival companies, in which large capitals have been so needlessly sunk would then have been wholly avoided; and it might further have followed from this cause, that a kind of public sanction having been given to particular lines and localities, much of that personal opposition which has thrown difficulties in the way of works of great and acknowledged utility, would never have been brought forward. The parliamentary contests here alluded to, have, in fact, been between private individuals, and the victory has remained with that one of the contending parties who could interest the greatest number of legislators: whereas, if the lines had been selected as the best that could be chosen, and sanctioned by men of professional skill and character, the legislature could never have listened to the pretensions of parties, who, through the use of family or personal influence, have, in too many cases, set up a show of opposition in order to extort exorbitant sums under the name of compensation. The published reports of some of the railway companies have put us in possession of the enormous sums which have been spent directly in these parliamentary contests, and it might be considered a sufficient justification of the remarks here made, to point to the following figures. These, however, form only a part of the expenditure incurred in overcoming, or, to speak more correctly, in buy-

ing off opposition, and which, as it enhances the cost of the undertaking, must be taken back from the public by the proprietors of the roads, in the form of excessive fares and tolls.

Statement of Parliamentary expenses incurred in obtaining Acts of Incorporation for the following undertakings:—

	£.	s.	d.
London and Birmingham Railway	72,868	18	10
Great Western	88,710	10	11
London and Southampton	39,040	16	6
Midland Counties	28,776	1	5
Birmingham and Gloucester	12,000	16	1
Great North of England	29,526	11	7
Grand Junction	22,757	10	4
Bristol and Exeter	18,592	1	10

In some cases the sums here given contain the expenses of surveying and other disbursements, which necessarily precede the obtaining of the Act of Incorporation. On the other hand, they exhibit only the costs defrayed by the proprietors of the railway to the exclusion of the expenses incurred by the different parties by whom the applications were opposed in Parliament. It is understood that the most glaring of the above cases is completely eclipsed by the charges attending the contests of the various lines projected to Brighton. No statement of those expenses has hitherto been published.

The plan above alluded to was taken up as regards Ireland, and, on the motion of the Marquess of Lansdowne, an address was presented to the Crown by the House of Lords, in compliance with which, Commissioners were nominated in October, 1836, to consider "*first*, as to a General System for Railways in Ireland, in such manner either by causing surveys to be made of the leading lines, or otherwise, as may best serve to guide the Legislature in the consideration of the projects that may be brought

before it. *Secondly*, as to the best mode of directing the development of the means of intercourse to the channels whereby the greatest advantage may be obtained by the smallest outlay; taking into consideration not only the existing means which the country presents, but those which may be anticipated from the resources which may in future be developed. *Thirdly*, to inquire as to the port or ports on the West or South Coast, whence the navigation to America may be best carried on by steam or sailing vessels; and to investigate particularly the facilities for the construction of lines of railroad across Ireland to such port or ports in connexion with the greatest possible collateral benefits to internal communications. And *fourthly*, to inquire into all such matters as may appear essential to the useful prosecution and result of the investigations."

A preliminary report was made by the Commissioners, in the month of March following their appointment, and laid before Parliament, in which report promise is given to present, as early as possible, the full result of their investigations, accompanied by statistical information of the most interesting nature, which will bring to the knowledge of the public various circumstances connected with the condition and prospects of Ireland, as to which no sources of inquiry have previously been opened: the report thus promised has not yet (February, 1838) been presented.

The railway system has been successfully introduced into Belgium. Two lines—one from Brussels to Malines, the other from Malines to Antwerp—are now in full operation. The nature of the country is most favourable for the construction of such works, requiring neither tunnelling nor deep cutting nor costly embankments. The first line from Brussels to Malines, about 13 English

miles in length, was, under these circumstances, completed for somewhat less than 60,000*l.* The distance from Malines to Antwerp is 14 miles, and the cost of constructing the railway between those towns was 75,000*l.*; the whole distance from Brussels to Antwerp, 27 English miles, having cost 134,920*l.*, or about 5000*l.* per mile, including the purchase of the land through which it passes, some part of which not being required for the purpose will be re-sold, and the proceeds will come in diminution of the cost. The line between Brussels and Malines has been open for traffic since the 7th of May, 1835, and in the first year thereafter 563,210 persons had been conveyed upon it. During the first month that followed the opening of the 14 miles from Malines to Antwerp, there were conveyed upon the whole line 101,479 passengers. The railroad having been constructed at a cost so comparatively inconsiderable, the fares are fixed on the most moderate scale; the whole journey from Brussels to Antwerp, which is performed in from 1 hour 25 min. to 1 hour 45 min., costs no more to the traveller than one franc or ten pence English money. At this rate, and with the estimated number of passengers, it is calculated that the railway will return to the Government, to whom the work belongs, 16 per cent. annual interest upon the capital expended. Before the opening of the railway the number of passengers between Brussels and Antwerp is said not to have exceeded on the average 80,000 yearly, at the cost to each person of 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* The official statements, from which these particulars have been taken, exhibit altogether a degree of success far beyond any that has hitherto attended upon any English railway.

The first construction of railroads in the United States is of still more recent date than the canals of that coun-

try. The earliest (the Quincy Railroad, in Massachussetts, three miles in length) was undertaken in 1825, and was intended only for the conveyance of heavy materials, as was the case with the earlier railroads in this country. The success of the Liverpool and Manchester line, as a means of rapid travelling, has stimulated the energies of the American citizens to an extraordinary degree, and already nearly 200 joint-stock associations have been incorporated for the construction of railroads in almost every part of the Union. Only a small proportion of the works thus contemplated have hitherto been completed, but many of them are in progress, and their aggregate length is said to exceed 3000 miles. The lines completed in 1836 were as under (their total length is 1003½ miles):—

States.		Length in Miles.	Finished in
Maine	Bangor to Oldtown	10	1836
Massachussetts	Boston to Lowell	26	1835
	Boston to Providence	41	,,
	Boston to Worcester	44	,,
	Quincy to Neponset River . . .	3	1827
New York . .	Buffalo to Black Rock	3	1835
	Ithaca to Oswego	29	1834
	Albany to Schenectady	16	1832
	Troy to Ballston Spa	24½	1835
	Rochester to Carthage	3	1833
	Saratoga to Schenectady	22	1832
	Utica to Schenectady	77	1836
New Jersey. .	Camden to South Amboy	61	1832
	Jersey to New Brunswick	31	1836
	Jersey to Paterson	16½	1834
Pennsylvania .	Philadelphia to Columbia	81½	1835
	Holydaysburgh to Johnstown . .	36¾	,,
Delaware . .	Newcastle to Frenchtown	16	1832
	Carried forward	541¼	

States.		Length in Miles.	Finished in
	Brought forward. . . .	541½	
Maryland . .	Baltimore to Harper's Ferry . . .	86	1835
	Harper's Ferry to Winchester . .	30	1836
	Baltimore to Havre de Grace . .	34½	,,
	Baltimore to Washington	40	1835
Virginia . . .	Richmond to Chesterfield Coal-pits	13	1831
	Pitsburg to Blakely	59	1833
	Winchester to Harper's Ferry . .	30	1836
South Carolina	Charleston to Hamburg	136	1833
Louisiana . .	New Orleans to Lake Pontchartrain	5	1831
Kentucky . .	Lexington to Frankfort	29	1836
		1003½ miles.	

The New York and Erie railroad, the greatest work of the kind that was ever undertaken, was begun in November, 1835. Its entire length from the city of New York to Portland and Dunkirk, on Lake Erie, will be 506 miles. The capital of the company is ten millions of dollars, or about 4120*l.* per mile. The South Carolina Railroad from Charleston to Hamburg, a distance of 136 miles, is a successful undertaking, which was begun in 1830 and opened for use throughout in 1833. It is built on piles, and the difference of level is overcome somewhat in the manner proposed in this country by Mr. Palmer, *i. e.*, by means of the varying lengths of the posts or piles employed. Since the first construction of this work it has been judged advisable to fill in the piles with earth, converting them into an embankment, and thus the cost of the line has been much enhanced. Even with this additional expense, however, the whole cost has been only 1,336,615 dollars, or 1312*l.* 4*s.* per mile, including loco-motive engines and carriages.

A still greater work than either of the foregoing—the Charleston and Cincinnati Railroad—has been projected

with the view of opening a communication between the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi and the Atlantic Ocean. The country between the two cities has been explored in various directions, and surveys are now in progress for determining which line offers the least difficulty with the greatest prospective advantages. It is not necessary to offer any further description of these undertakeings. Enough has been said to show that, however rapidly we may proceed in the execution of such works in this country, we are pretty sure to be effectually rivalled in that respect by the enterprizing and indefatigable citizens of the United States.

CHAPTER VI.

COASTING TRADE.

No records of Coasting Trade earlier than 1824—Tonnage employed, 1824 to 1837—Proportion employed in conveying coals to London—Influence of Corn Trade in determining fluctuations in the employment of Coasting Vessels.

THE Custom House does not contain any records from which the amount of our coasting trade in general can be ascertained for any period earlier than 1824. From that year to 1837 the tonnage of coasting vessels that entered inwards at ports in Great Britain from other ports in Great Britain, including their repeated voyages, has been as follows:—

	Tons.		Tons.
1824....	8,552,177	1831....	8,255,630
1825....	8,651,783	1832....	8,393,068
1826....	8,870,582	1833....	8,358,454
1827....	7,448,252	1834....	8,774,326
1828....	7,987,604	1835....	9,054,769
1829....	8,027,475	1836....	9,157,100
1830....	8,240,654	1837....	9,207,266

It has been already shown (Section 2, Chap. vi.) how large an amount of tonnage is engaged in the conveyance of coals coastways between different parts of the kingdom. The arrivals in the port of London alone in the six years from 1831 to 1836 were—

	Ships.	Tons of Coals.
1831 . . .	7,006	2,053,673
1832 . . .	7,528	2,149,820
1833 . . .	7,077	2,014,804
1834 . . .	7,404	2,080,547
1835 . . .	7,958	2,299,816
1836 . . .	8,162	2,398,352

It is to be regretted that the statements of our coasting trade during earlier years cannot be procured, as it is evident that this is the only branch of home traffic capable of being measured by Custom House records as to its amount and progress. The falling off, exhibited above, in the coasting tonnage of 1827 and subsequent years, as compared with the first three years of the series, is very remarkable. The only circumstance which seems to offer any explanation of the diminution, is the fact of the importations of foreign grain having been, on the average of the five years from 1827 to 1831, nearly double the average importations in the three years from 1824 to 1826. The foreign grain being brought principally to the markets where it was required for consumption, the services of coasting traders would be so far not required. During the same time and subsequently to 1831, the importations of grain into Great Britain from Ireland have also been very

considerably greater than they were up to 1827, and this while it may also partly account for the diminution in the English coasting trade, will explain in some degree the increase that occurred about the same time in the tonnage of vessels from Ireland, as shown in the following chapter; the increased average size of the vessels since 1825 is owing to the partial employment of steam vessels.

The peculiar nature of the laws which have regulated our trade in foreign corn has occasioned accounts to be kept of the quantities as well as the prices of grain sold in certain specified markets throughout the kingdom. Some changes have, at different times, been made as regards the particular markets in which these registers must be kept; in some it has been abandoned, and others have been made to supply their places. Not long ago an account was called for by the House of Commons stating in detail the quantities and prices registered in those various markets. Among these places there are 128 where registers have been kept continuously since 1825, and from these it appears that the quantity of home-grown wheat sold, has, during that time, very much increased. The returns of 1825 show that the sales in these markets amounted to 1,993,564 quarters, and in 1834 had advanced to 2,816,841, showing an increase in ten years of 41 per cent. The difference of price obtainable in these two years, may have had some effect upon the quantities brought to market, and the difference in the number of mouths to be fed must also be taken into the account; but these causes together do not seem sufficient to account for such an increase as that which actually occurred, and some part of it is, no doubt, owing to the improved condition of the people, which enables them in a greater degree than formerly to command the necessaries of life.

Chapter VII.

TRADE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Value of Goods passing between Great Britain and Ireland in different years between 1801 and 1825—No later official account kept—Trade by Steam Vessels between Ireland and Liverpool—Value of Agricultural Produce so conveyed, 1831 and 1832—Number and Value of Live Stock imported into Great Britain, 1801–1825—Imported into Liverpool and Bristol, 1831, 1832, and 1837—Eggs imported—Effect upon the Markets in Ireland—Feathers—Grain, 1815 to 1836—Vessels employed in Trade between Great Britain and Ireland, 1801–1837.

The value of produce and merchandise that have been the objects of trade between Great Britain and Ireland, in various years since the Union, has been stated in papers laid before Parliament, as follows:—

	Imports into Ireland from Great Britain.	Exports from Ireland to Great Britain.
1801	£3,270,350	£3,537,725
1805	4,067,717	4,288,167
1809	5,316,557	4,588,305
1813	6,746,353	5,410,326
1817	4,722,766	5,696,613
1821	5,338,838	7,117,452
1825	7,048,936	8,531,355

No account of this trade can be given for any year subsequent to 1825, the commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland having at the end of that year been assimilated by law to the coasting traffic carried on between the different ports of England; and, with the exception of the single article of grain (as to which it was considered desirable by the Legislature to continue

the record), we have now no official register of the quantity or value of goods or produce received from or sent to Ireland. That this traffic has greatly increased in all its branches there can be no doubt; and this increase may partly be attributed to the abolition of the restrictions that existed up to 1825, but probably still more to the employment of steam-vessels upon an extensive scale. To show the extent to which the traffic has been carried by this means, a statement was furnished to a Committee of the House of Commons by the manager of a company trading with steam-vessels between Ireland and Liverpool, of the quantity and value of agricultural produce imported into that one port from Ireland in 1831 and 1832. From this statement it appears that the annual value of the trade was about 4½ millions sterling, which was in great part made up of articles that could not have been so profitably brought to England by any previously existing mode of conveyance—such as live cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs; the value of which amounted in 1831 to 1,760,000*l.*, and in 1832 to 1,430,000*l.* During the same two years the value of Irish agricultural produce brought to the port of Bristol averaged about one million sterling. The whole number of cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs sent from Ireland to the various ports of England and Scotland, in different years from 1801 to 1825, was as under:—

	1801.	1805.	1809.	1813.	1817.	1821.	1825.
Cattle .	31,543	21,862	17,917	48,973	45,301	26,725	63,519
Horses .	669	4114	3264	3904	848	2392	3130
Sheep .	2879	10,938	7572	7508	29,460	25,310	72,161
Pigs . .	1968	6383	4712	14,521	24,193	104,501	65,919

The numbers sent to Liverpool and Bristol alone, in 1831 and 1832, were—

	Liverpool.		Bristol.	
	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.
Cattle	91,911	71,318	6078	4077
Horses and Mules	539	708	159	190
Sheep	160,487	98,337	11,640	4446
Pigs	156,001	149,090	84,107	85,619

The statement above mentioned of the imports into Liverpool occasioned considerable surprise at the time it was made, from the greatness of its amount, but it would appear that this branch of trade has since gone on increasing in a most extraordinary degree, as will be seen from the following account of the number and value of live animals brought from Ireland to Liverpool in the year 1837:—

84,710	Black Cattle, at 16*l.* each	. .	£1,365,360
316	Calves	45*s.* „ . .	711
225,050	Sheep	40*s.* „ . .	450,100
24,669	Lambs	18*s.* „ . .	22,202
595,422	Pigs	50*s.* „ . .	1,488,555
3,414	Horses	20*l.* „ . .	68,280
319	Mules	8*l.* „ . .	2,552
	Total Value	. . . .	£3,397,760

The average value here assigned to the several kinds of animals, is given on the authority of an intelligent gentleman resident at Liverpool, and who is practically acquainted with the trade.

The value in money, of one seemingly unimportant article, eggs, taken in the course of the year to the above two ports from Ireland, amounts to at least 100,000*l.* The progress of this trade affords a curious illustration of the advantage of commercial facilities in stimulating production and equalizing prices. Before the establishmen of steam-vessels the market at Cork was most irregularly

supplied with eggs from the surrounding district; at certain seasons they were exceedingly abundant and cheap, but these seasons were sure to be followed by periods of scarcity and high prices, and at times it is said to have been difficult to purchase eggs at any price in the market. At the first opening of the improved channel for conveyance to England, the residents at Cork had to complain of the constant high price of this and other articles of farm produce; but as a more extensive market was now permanently open to them, the farmers gave their attention to the rearing and keeping of poultry, and, at the present time, eggs are procurable at all seasons in the market at Cork, not, it is true, at the extremely low rate at which they could formerly be sometimes bought, but still at much less than the average price of the year: a like result has followed the introduction of this great improvement in regard to the supply and cost of various other articles of produce. In the apparently unimportant article—feathers—it may be stated, on the respectable authority above quoted, that the yearly importation into England from Ireland reaches the amount of 500,000*l.*

It has been mentioned that when, in order to save the yearly salaries of one or two junior clerks, it was determined to cease keeping any official record of the commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, an exception was made as regards grain and flour, that trade being of great personal interest to our legislators. The following statement exhibits the quantities of those kinds of produce sent to us from Ireland in each year from 1815 to 1836:—

Statement of the Quantity of various kinds of Grain and Meal brought into Great Britain from Ireland, in each Year, from 1815 to 1836:—

Years.	Wheat and Wheat Flour.	Barley and Barley Meal.	Rye.	Oats and Oatmeal.	Indian Corn.	Beans.	Peas.	Total of Grain and Meal.
	Qrs	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
1815	189,544	27,108	207	597,537	...	6,796		821,192
1816	121,631	62,254	43	683,714	...	6,223		873,865
1817	59,025	26,766	614	611,117	...	2,287		699,809
1818	108,230	25,387	4	1,069,385	...	4,845		1,207,851
1819	154,031	20,311	2	789,613	...	3,904		967,861
1820	404,747	87,095	134	916,250	1	8,893		1,417,120
1821	569,700	82,884	550	1,162,249	...	7,433		1,822,816
1822	463,004	22,532	353	569,237	...	7,963		1,063,089
1823	400,068	19,274	198	1,102,487	...	6,126		1,528,153
1824	356,408	45,872	112	1,225,085	...	6,547		1,634,024
1825	396,018	165,082	220	1,629,856	...	12,786		2,203,962
1826	314,851	64,885	77	1,303,734	...	7,190	1,452	1,692,189
1827	405,255	67,791	256	1,343,267	1765	10,037	1,372	1,829,743
1828	652,584	84,204	1424	2,075,631	280	7,068	4,944	2,826,135
1829	519,493	97,140	568	1,673,628	39	10,444	4,503	2,305,806
1830	529,717	189,745	414	1,471,252	28	19,053	2,520	2,212,729
1831	557,520	185,409	515	1,655,934	563	15,039	4,663	2,419,643
1832	572,586	123,068	294	1,890,321	3037	14,512	1,916	2,605,734
1833	844,201	107,519	167	1,762,519	117	19,103	2,645	2,736,281
1834	779,504	217,568	982	1,713,971	75	18,770	2,176	2,733,046
1835	661,773	156,176	614	1,813,101	...	24,234	3,447	2,659,345
1836	598,756	182,867	493	2,126,693	...	17,603	2,920	2,929,322

In the absence of all further Custom House records, the following Table of the number and tonnage of vessels in which the trading intercourse with Ireland has been carried on during each year of the present century, will afford a pretty correct view of its amount and progress. If we compare the tonnage employed in 1801 with that of 1836, we shall find that they bear the proportion of 257 to 100, showing an increase of 157 per cent. It will further be seen that this increase has been much more rapid during the last 10 years in which steam vessels have been so much brought into use, than it was in the preceding years of the series. Up to 1826 the increase from 1801 was no more than 62 per cent., show

ing a mean annual increase of 2¾ per cent., whereas in the 10 years following 1826 the increase has been 95 per cent., or 9½ per cent. annually.

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels including their repeated voyages that entered the Ports of Great Britain from Ireland, and that left the Ports of Great Britain for Ireland, with cargoes, in each year, from 1801 to 1837.

Years.	Inwards.		Outwards.		Years.	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	5,360	456,026	6,816	582,033	1819	8,575	699,885	9,751	795,495
1802	5,820	461,398	5,540	449,350	1820	9,229	783,750	8,451	734,716
1803	5,796	504,884	5,656	502,279	1821	9,440	819,648	9,266	801,007
1804	5,643	490,455	6,148	557,279	1822	9,562	832,927	9,935	828,114
1805	6,306	566,790	6,875	598,720	1823	9,382	786,637	9,937	814,383
1806	6,907	578,297	7,032	586,728	1824	7,534	615,396	10,989	905,449
1807	no returns can be procured for this year.				1825	8,922	741,182	10,981	922,355
					1826	6,388	632,972	11,599	1,055,870
1808	8,477	768,264	7,560	696,473	1827	7,411	737,752	11,083	1,044,093
1809	7,041	600,898	7,011	580,587	1828	8,790	923,505	12,339	1,167,280
1810	8,403	713,087	9,121	763,488	1829	8,922	906,158	13,478	1,286,168
1811	9,014	789,097	8,216	703,738	1830	8,455	880,965	13,144	1,245,647
1812	10,812	925,736	10,053	867,342	1831	9,029	921,128	13,158	1,246,742
1813	8,569	718,851	9,096	773,286	1832	9,705	1,026,613	14,694	1,417,533
1814	7,562	613,898	8,719	715,171	1833	9,476	1,041,882	14,227	1,378,556
1815	8,462	680,333	9,602	776,315	1834	10,026	1,100,389	14,560	1,440,617
1816	7,575	621,273	8,861	721,772	1835	10,116	1,138,147	14,608	1,473,255
1817	9,186	770,547	9,530	762,770	1836	9,820	1,179,062	14,725	1,490,788
1818	7,969	644,896	8,863	763,622	1837	10,299	1,202,104	16,347	1,585,624

Chapter VIII.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Necessity of establishing Legal Standards—Inconvenience of Local and Customary Weights and Measures—Parliamentary Investigations—Acts of 1824—Of 1834 and of 1835, for establishing uniformity of Weights and Measures throughout the Kingdom.

In every country, where advances have been made towards civilization, and where the mode of traffic among the people has gone one step beyond the rudest system of barter, it has been found necessary for the Government to interfere, in order to establish standards whereby to ascertain the quantities by weight or measure of things which form the objects of purchase and sale. This interference is necessary, in order to prevent frauds and endless disputes; and when a system of weights and measures has been adopted, which in this respect introduces certainty into the dealings of traders and consumers, a great benefit will have been conferred upon both classes. It has commonly happened in various countries, from the subject not having been well understood, that the settlement of this important point has been delegated by the general government to various local bodies in different parts of the same country, and by this means a want of uniformity has been produced, which is at least very inconvenient to the community at large. The introduction of such a state of things is the more to be regretted, because of the great pertinacity with which people adhere to customs of this kind, when once they have been suf-

fered to take root. At the very beginning of the French Revolution, the National Convention of France passed a decree, with the object of establishing entire uniformity of weights and measures in that country. This decree was recommended to the cordial acceptance of the people as one of the greatest benefits which the legislature could bestow upon the citizens, and at the same time any infringement of the law was declared to be highly penal; nearly half a century has since elapsed, and although during the whole of that time the government has in every proper way sought to give a practical effect to the new system, which is further recommended by the scientific character and the simplicity of its principles and arrangement, yet to this hour the weights and measures established by law have not been adopted in the largest part of French towns, where, in all dealings between shopkeepers and their customers, the old modes of weighing and measuring are still pursued.

The great inconvenience attending such a want of uniformity in this country had long been acknowledged, and at various times efforts had been made for remedying the evil. A Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in 1790 to investigate the subject, and to suggest a remedy, but no practical result followed from the inquiry. In seasons of war the importance of such questions is generally forgotten amidst more pressing calls upon the attention of the government and the public. Accordingly nothing further was attempted on this head until 1814, in which year another Committee of the House of Commons was appointed; but, if we except the eliciting of opinions upon the subject from eminent men —such as Dr. Wollaston and Professor Playfair—this Committee also was unproductive of good. In 1818 a Commission, consisting of Sir Joseph Bankes, Sir George Clerk, Mr. Davies Gilbert, Dr. Wollaston, Dr. Young,

and Captain Kater, was appointed by Government to devise some practical remedy for the evil. The consequent labours of these eminent men cannot be said to have been useless, because their investigations led to scientific discoveries, which simplified the question and pointed out the means for preserving or restoring accurate standards both of weight and measure. The investigations of the Commission did not, however, lead to any immediate legislative act; and it was not until four years had elapsed that a Bill to regulate weights and measures was introduced into the House of Commons by Sir George Clerk, one of the members of the Commission. This Bill did not pass. It was again introduced by the same gentleman in the following year (1823), when it passed the House of Commons, but was not carried through its stages in the Lords. A better fortune awaited the measure in 1824, when an Act for ascertaining and establishing uniformity of Weights and Measures received the Royal Assent. By this Act, the old standard of weight and linear measure that had been long in use in England, were adopted and made applicable to the whole kingdom, while the measures of capacity were changed and rendered uniform. The old standard *Wine* Gallon contained 231 cubic inches; the *Ale and Beer* Gallon, 282 cubic inches; the *Corn* Gallon, 268$\frac{4}{5}$ cubic inches; and the *Scots Pint*, 103$\frac{4}{5}$ cubic inches. These measures, with all other local measures of every description, were abolished, and instead of them a measure, called an *Imperial Gallon*, was established. This gallon was declared to contain ten pounds avoirdupois weight of distilled water, weighed in air, at the temperature of 62 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer—the barometer being at 30 inches. The content of the Imperial gallon, thus computed, is found to be 277·274 (rather more than 277$\frac{1}{4}$) cubic inches. A mode of verifying this mea-

sure, and also of verifying, by its means, both linear measure and weight, is pointed out by establishing mutual relations between the three, thus:—The contents of the cube of the sixth part of the length of the pendulum vibrating seconds in the latitude of London, at the level of the sea, and in a vacuum (which has been made the element for establishing linear measure) is so very near the contents of the Imperial standard gallon, that the difference is only three-tenths of a cubic inch; the cube of the sixth part of the length of the pendulum containing 277·578, while the Imperial gallon contains 277·274 cubic inches; and the tenth part of the weight of an Imperial gallon of water, at a temperature exactly one-sixth part of the distance between the points of freezing and boiling, is an Imperial standard avoirdupois pound. The standards of both weights and measures are thus rendered so far invariable in future, that they are found to be independent of all artificial measurements and graduations, and can be at once referred "to nature alone for their prototypes." This is assuredly a great improvement over the old system, which made a grain of corn, the human foot, and the distance to which a man can extend his arms—all things which are manifestly liable to considerable diversity —the elements whence to determine weight and measure.

This law, which came into operation on the 1st of January, 1826, failed, during the nine years of its existence, to produce a satisfactory degree of uniformity in practice throughout the kingdom: it proved, however, in a high degree useful, as it paved the way for the more perfect measures adopted in 1834 and 1835, under which we are now acting, and which could probably not have been enforced but for the preparation of the public mind which resulted from the previous step towards improvement. By the law now established, a very high degree of simplification has been attained. The units of weight and measure

adopted in 1824 are continued, and their universal adoption throughout the kingdom is made imperative. Besides this, all modes of measuring, which admitted of uncertainty, are declared illegal. A bushel or gallon of some kinds of articles was formerly not merely the quantity which the measure would contain within it, but a superaddition of as much more as could be heaped upon it in the form of a cone. Other articles were measured without this cone—the first mode of proceeding being called heap-measure, and the second strike-measure, from the employment of a roller to remove or strike off all of the article measured which stood above the level of the rim of the measure. Strike-measure is now declared to be the only legal mode for determining the quantity of all descriptions of dry goods in measures of capacity. The uncertainty, and consequently the possible unfairness of heaped measure, was demonstrated by the Clerk of Covent Garden Market, who stated, in his evidence given before a Committee of the House of Commons, that he had employed two different persons to measure each a peck of nuts, and that one of them put eleven, while the other could put only ten quarts in and on the measure. A mode of ascertaining quantity, which thus admitted of variations amounting to ten per cent., according to the skilfulness of the measurer, was one which called loudly for alteration, and any system which in this respect had left people at liberty to continue the old practice, would have been highly unsatisfactory.

All local or customary weights or measures are abolished throughout the kingdom, under heavy penalties. That previously uncertain quantity, a *Stone*, is now invariably 14 Imperial pounds, eight of which form the hundred weight; and, with the exception of gold, silver, platina, diamonds, or other precious stones (for ascertaining the quantities of which Troy weight is still al-

lowed), all articles which are weighed must now be sold by the Imperial pound.

One imperfection has been allowed—inadvertently, perhaps—to creep into the new system. When heaped measure was used, it was seen to be necessary to prescribe by law the shape as well as the cubic contents of the measure used, because the size of the cone heaped above the level of the rim depended upon the area of its base. If two vessels were made, having the same cubic contents, but one of which was more shallow than the other, the quantity heaped upon such shallower vessel would of course be greater than where a deeper but narrower vessel was used. It seems to have been considered that when this cone was no longer permitted to be added to the measure, the form became immaterial. This is found to be incorrect. Some articles, such as corn, are made to lie closer together when subjected to pressure, and for this reason a deep vessel will hold a larger quantity than one having the same cubic contents, but which is more shallow in form. It has been ascertained by experiments carefully conducted by Dr. Anderson, and given in evidence before a Committee of the House of Commons, that "wheat measured in a bushel-measure, which was 11¼ inches deep, weighed 56 lb. 6⅜ oz.; and that the same wheat, measured under the same circumstances in a bushel 8½ inches deep, weighed no more than 56 lb. 0⅛ oz., making a deficiency of rather more than one in 150—a loss of some moment where large quantities are delivered."

The use of any soft metal or alloy, such as lead and pewter, for making weights, is forbidden, because of the facility they would afford for falsification, and the loss to which they would be speedily subjected in use through abrasion.

Chapter IX.

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

Dependence of various countries upon each other for comforts and conveniences—Peculiar advantages of England for prosecuting Foreign Commerce—Effect of wars and commercial systems upon Foreign Trade—Growing importance of its commerce to England, arising out of its increasing population—Influence of extended markets in preventing ruinous fluctuations—Impossibility of long maintaining existing Corn Laws—Progress of Foreign and Colonial Trade, from 1801 to 1836—Course of Trade with various Countries—Opening of East India and China Trades—Discriminating Duties on Sugar—On Coffee—On Timber—Imports, Exports, &c. 1835–36—Customs Duties at different Ports—Continental System—Return of Peace—Free-trade Petition of London Merchants—Relaxation of Navigation Acts—Reciprocity Treaties—Registered Tonnage—Ships Built—Ships Entered and Cleared 1801–1836.

There are but few countries so circumstanced with regard to their natural capabilities of soil and climate as to be independent of all other countries for the supply of many of those productions which have become necessary to the comfort, if, indeed, they be not indispensable requisites to the well-being of their inhabitants. England is assuredly not one of those countries, and foreign commerce is to its inhabitants a thing of social, if not of physical, necessity. But for our traffic in foreign productions, even the home trade of England would be without a great part of the activity by which it is distinguished, because, as regards what is yielded by our own

soil, each part of the kingdom is nearly independent of every other part. The South has no need to draw its supplies of grain from the North, nor does the West require to receive the cattle bred in the East. With respect to our minerals, a great part even of these are found in different and distant parts of the island, so that in almost every case that part of the produce of our industry which exceeds in each particular branch the wants of the population engaged for its supply must seek a market in other countries, and be there exchanged for such articles of convenience as Nature refuses to yield to us in sufficient cheapness or abundance from our own soil.

The geographical position and capabilities of England furnish her with advantages for the prosecution of this foreign commerce, far greater than are possessed by any other country of equal extent. To these advantages we have added a spirit of industry fostered by our free institutions, and a degree of commercial enterprise, beyond that of any other people either ancient or modern, with, perhaps, the recent exception of the United States of America. But although the amount of our foreign trade is greater than that of any other country, it by no means follows that it is as great as it should be, or as it would long since have become if left to its own free course. Considering all the natural and acquired advantages that we possess for this purpose, it should rather excite surprise and regret that our commerce is so small, than engender pride because it is so large. Requiring, as we do, so many of the productions of other climates, and capable as we are of commanding them by means of our own products and manufactures, which are objects of universal desire in almost every climate; to what can we attribute it, but to the evil consequences of wars and the still more baleful consequences of ill-considered systems of commercial laws, that

we do not command the whole habitable world for our market, and that the 25,000,000 inhabiting the British Islands *should furnish a more important array of customers than all other civilized communities*, even when we include with the latter the inhabitants of our many colonies and populous dependencies, of the direct trade with which we so long reserved to ourselves the monopoly?

The argument in favour of the greater comparative value to a country of its home than of its foreign trade, which has been founded upon the greater economy and celerity with which the operations of the former are conducted, is far from being always correct when applied to England. The trading communication between the South and East coasts of Great Britain and the North and West shores of many European countries is kept up with greater facility and economy than the traffic between some of our distant counties. The time and money expended in conveying a bale of goods from Manchester to London are greater than are required for its conveyance from London to Rotterdam, and the charge made for the cartage of a puncheon of rum from the West India Docks to Westminster exceeds the charge that would be made for conveying the same puncheon of rum from those Docks to Hamburg. Even in those branches of foreign commerce, where from the length of the voyage a considerable time must elapse between the shipment of goods, their reception and sale abroad, and the transmission of returns to the hands of the shipper, a remedy for the evil of delay has been found in the operation of commercial bankers, whose dealings consist in the purchase and sale of bills of exchange, and are founded upon the varying necessities of different individual traders.

In this country, limited as it is in geographical extent, and where, as has been shown in a former section of this

work, population is to all appearance fast overtaking the capability of the soil to yield the necessary amount of food, we have a motive which is every year becoming more and more cogent for giving the greatest possible facilities to our commercial intercourse with other countries. We have seen that, in the twenty years that elapsed between 1811 and 1831, the increase in the total number of families in Great Britain was 869,960, or at the rate of 34 per cent. upon the numbers of 1811, while the increase in the number of families employed in agriculture was only 65,136, or but little more than 2½ per cent.; the remainder, amounting to 804,824 families, having betaken themselves to trading and manufacturing employments. Hitherto our increased numbers have found an adequate supply of food by means of the improvements that have been introduced in agricultural processes, and that large proportion of our augmented population which has thus been fed from the produce of our soil has found profitable employment in various ways without producing an adequate increase to the amount of foreign commerce. This is a state of things which cannot continue indefinitely in progress. We cannot reasonably expect that the soil can always be made to yield increasing harvests to meet the constant augmentation of the population, nor that the labours of our artisans, whose additional numbers must be reckoned yearly by hundreds of thousands, can continue to find profitable employment in a sphere thus made comparatively narrower from year to year. The onward progress of our population cannot be checked without the arrival of reverses which would plunge the greater part of the nation into a state of misery which it is painful to contemplate, and on the other hand such a check can only be averted by a great, a rapid, and a permanent extension of commercial rela-

tions with countries whose inhabitants, being in different circumstances to those which have been here described, may be always willing to exchange the products of their soil for the results of our manufacturing industry.

In seasons of general prosperity, when the productive classes are fully and profitably employed, it is always found that a stimulus is given to consumption, and it very frequently has happened that the effective demand for manufactured goods thus created has excited increased production to a degree beyond what has been required. When circumstances change and a check is given to consumption, those persons who have been led thus to apply an additional amount of capital and labour, are exposed to considerable losses, and it must be obvious that the danger of encountering this evil is greater in proportion as the market which they supply is circumscribed. If limited to one country, which is suffering under circumstances of depression, the distress of the producers must be highly aggravated, but if they are accustomed to carry on commercial dealings with foreign lands, it is not probable that all will be at the same time under depression; the evil, as far as the producers are concerned, will be easily remedied, and a small reduction in the price of their goods will then cause such an increased demand in foreign countries as will greatly palliate if it do not remedy the mischief arising from fluctuations in the home demand.

If the view that has been taken in these pages of our condition and prospects has any true foundation, it seems to be quite impossible that the remaining branches of the restrictive system to which the Legislature of this country so long and so pertinaciously adhered, should be much longer continued, and that we should still empower the comparatively few amongst us "who have

obtained the proprietary possession of the soil, to increase artificially the money value of their estates,"* by means of a monopoly which threatens to be destructive of the happiness and social progress of the nation. The evils consequent upon persistance in a system of virtual exclusion, such as is at present followed, are imminent; they are not of a nature to be put aside or long delayed by temporising measures; it would therefore seem most in agreement with true wisdom at once to meet the difficulty, and to determine upon the adoption of a decisive course of alteration, which without too rashly interfering with existing contracts will lead to a progressive and yet speedy removal of all restrictions that now stand in the way of our obtaining, for a constantly-increasing population, an adequate supply of the first necessaries of life.

By following such a course, we must of necessity give full freedom to the productive industry of the country in all its branches, including among the rest that class for whose supposed benefit we have so long submitted to a contrary system; for it would be absurd to suppose that in a state of things such as has here been contemplated, with a constantly-increasing number of customers, our agriculturists must not share in the general prosperity, and that they should, under any circumstances, fail to obtain a return for their capital and labour equal to that realised by all other classes in the community: beyond this they can have no right to claim any advantage.

The amount and progress of the foreign and colonial trade of the United Kingdom in each year from 1801 to 1836, with the exception of 1813, the records of which year were burned with the Custom-house, are given in the following abstract:—

* Letters on the Corn Laws, by H. B. T.

Statement of the Amount of the Foreign and Colonial Trade of the United Kingdom, specifying the Official Value of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported and re-exported, and the official and real or declared value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported in each Year from 1801 to 1836:—

Years.	Official Value.			Real or declared value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported.
	Imports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Exports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Exports of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1801	31,786,262	10,336,966	24,927,684	39,730,659*
1802	29,826,210	12,677,431	25,632,549	45,102,330*
1803	26,622,696	8,032,643	20,467,531	36,127,787*
1804	27,819,552	8,938,741	22,687,309	37,135,746*
1805	28,561,270	7,643,120	23,376,941	38,077,144
1806	26,899,658	7,717,555	25,861,879	40,874,983
1807	26,734,425	7,624,312	23,391,214	37,245,877
1808	26,795,540	5,776,775	24,611,215	37,275,102
1809	31,750,557	12,750,358	33,542,274	47,371,393
1810	39,301,612	9,357,435	34,061,901	48,438,680
1811	26,510,186	6,117,720	22,681,400	32,890,712
1812	26,163,431	9,533,065	29,508,508	41,716,964
1813	Records destroyed by fire.			
1814	33,755,264	19,365,981	34,207,253	45,494,219
1815	32,987,396	15,748,554	42,875,996	51,603,028
1816	27,431,604	13,480,780	35,717,070	41,657,873
1817	30,834,299	10,292,684	40,111,427	41,761,132
1818	36,885,182	10,859,817	42,700,521	46,603,249
1819	30,776,810	9,904,813	33,534,176	35,208,321
1820	32,438,650	10,555,912	38,395,625	36,424,652
1821	30,792,760	10,629,689	40,831,744	36,659,630
1822	30,500,094	9,227,589	44,236,523	36,968,964
1823	35,798,707	8,603,904	43,804,372	35,458,048
1824	37,552,935	10,204,785	48,735,551	38,396,300
1825	44,137,492	9,169,494	47,166,020	38,877,388
1826	37,686,113	10,076,286	40,965,735	31,536,723
1827	44,887,774	9,830,728	52,219,280	37,181,335
1828	45,028,805	9,946,545	52,797,455	36,812,756
1829	43,981,317	10,622,402	56,213,041	35,842,623
1830	46,245,241	8,550,437	61,140,864	38,271,597
1831	49,713,889	10,745,071	60,683,933	37,164,372
1832	44,586,741	11,044,869	65,026,702	36,450,594
1833	45,952,551	9,833,753	69,989,339	39,667,347
1834	49,362,811	11,562,036	73,831,550	41,649,191
1835	48,911,542	12,797,724	78,376,731	47,372,270
1836	57,023,867	12,391,711	85,229,837	53,368,571

* The declared value of British and Irish produce, &c., exported in the years 1801 to 1804, applies to Great Britain only, the real value of exports from Ireland not having been recorded earlier than 1805. The exports from Ireland are, however, inconsiderable.

The rates of valuation employed for computing the amounts given under the head of *official value* were fixed in the year 1694, and have not since been altered, so that the sums thus stated must not be supposed to give an accurate exhibition of the value of goods imported and exported. This system of valuation has been preserved in the public accounts, because it is supposed to afford a correct measure of the comparative quantity of merchandise which has made up the sum of our annual commercial dealings with other countries. It is perhaps impossible to ascertain with absolute correctness the value of all the foreign and colonial merchandise imported, because of the great range of qualities and consequently of value as regards many of the principal articles of commerce, and which value cannot be accurately estimated before the goods are landed and submitted to inspection; it would, however, be not only possible but easy of accomplishment to arrive at a satisfactory approximation to the truth, if some competent persons in various lines of business were employed every year to affix an average value to the different descriptions of goods that had been imported in the course of the preceding year, and which average value should be used by the computers at the Custom-house for ascertaining the amount of the year's commercial dealings. The fallacy of the present system will be at once apparent if the amounts given as the official value of imports and exports in any one year are brought into comparison. On the supposition of the correctness of the Custom-house valuations, our foreign and colonial trade must long since have proved the ruin of our merchants, since the value assigned to the exports is enormously greater than that given to the imports. To instance the first and last years of the series in the following Table, the

loss of the country in 1801 must have amounted to 3,478,388*l.*, and in 1836 to 40,597,681*l.* The adoption of a second method for recording the value of the exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures, according to the declaration of the exporters, affords better means for judging as to the actual progress of our foreign trade, since it is certain that, taking one year with another, the amount of the shipments so made must be brought back to us together with the ordinary rate of profit. If the following Table is taken in this way as the test of the progress of our foreign trade, during the present century, it will be seen that little or none has been made—that in fact, if we except the last two years (1835 and 1836), the amount of our foreign trade has not been equal to that which was carried on during some of the years when we were at war with nearly all Europe, nor to that of the first five years of peace that followed. The average annual exports of British produce and manufactures in the decennary period from 1801 to 1810 amounted to 40,737,970*l.* In the next ten years, from 1811 to 1820, the annual average was 41,484,461*l.*; from 1821 to 1830 the annual average fell to 36,597,623*l.* Since that time the amount has been progressively advancing, and in 1836 exceeded by 1,765,543*l.* the amount in 1815, the first year of the peace, which, with the exception of 1836, was the greatest year of export trade, judging from the value of the shipments, that this country has ever seen.

The imperfect manner in which the Custom-house accounts were formerly called for by Parliament, and the subsequent destruction of the Custom-house by fire, do not allow of any analysis being made of the foregoing statement for all the earlier years of the series. The following abstract, exhibiting the course of our export trade from 1805 to 1811, and from 1814 to 1836, will

show in how great a degree it has been owing of late years to the enterprise of our merchants in seeking new and distant fields for commercial operations that the money-value has been maintained of the produce and manufactures of the kingdom which have been exported, and that we have been able to command and to consume to as great an extent as formerly the production of other countries.—(See Table, next page.)

That part of our commerce which, being carried on with the rich and civilised inhabitants of European nations, should present the greatest field for extension, will be seen to have fallen off under this aspect in a remarkable degree. The average annual exports to the whole of Europe were less in value by nearly 20 per cent., in the five years from 1832 to 1836, than they were in the five years that followed the close of the war, and it affords strong evidence of the unsatisfactory footing upon which our trading regulations with Europe are established, that our exports to the United States of America, which with their population of only twelve millions are removed to a distance from us of 3000 miles across the Atlantic, have amounted to more than one-half of the value of our shipments to the whole of Europe with a population fifteen times as great as that of the United States of America, and with an abundance of productions suited to our wants, which they are naturally desirous of exchanging for the products of our mines and looms.

If we assume the *official* value of British produce and manufactures exported at different periods as the test of the progress of our foreign commerce, it will be found that its increase has been as great proportionally, and much greater absolutely, since the beginning of the present century than it was during the last thirty years of the century that has passed. The value of those ex-

A Statement of the Real or Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to different Foreign Countries & Colonial Possessions, in each of the Years 1805 to 1811, & 1814 to 1836.

Years.	Northern Europe.	Southern Europe.	Africa.	Asia.	Un. States of America.	Brit. N. Am. Colonies & W. Indies.	Foreign West Indies.	Central and Sn. America (incl. Brazil).	America, excl. of the Unt. States.	Total.
	£.		£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1805	13,625,676		756,060	2,904,584	11,011,409	...	...	...	7,771,418	36,069,147
1806	11,363,635		1,163,744	2,937,895	12,389,488	...	...	...	10,877,968	38,732,730
1807	9,002,237		765,468	3,359,226	11,846,513	...	...	...	10,439,423	35,412,867
1808	9,016,033		633,125	3,524,823	5,241,739	...	...	...	16,591,871	35,007,591
1809	15,849,449		804,452	2,867,832	7,258,500	...	...	...	18,014,219	44,794,452
1810	15,627,806		595,031	2,977,366	10,920,752	...	...	...	15,640,166	45,761,121
1811	12,834,680		336,742	2,941,194	1,841,253	...	...	...	11,939,680	29,893,549
1814	14,113,775	12,755,816	372,212	2,340,417	8,129	11,429,452	1,791,167	2,683,151	...	45,494,119
1815	11,971,692	8,764,552	333,842	2,931,935	13,255,374	10,687,551	1,156,875	2,531,150	...	51,632,971
1816	11,369,086	7,284,469	351,674	3,071,197	9,556,577	7,016,410	860,948	2,147,497	...	41,657,858
1817	11,408,083	7,685,491	406,359	3,725,386	6,930,359	7,405,516	1,279,781	2,651,337	...	41,492,312
1818	11,809,243	7,630,139	390,586	3,876,677	9,451,009	7,789,780	1,169,609	3,995,757	...	46,112,800
1819	9,895,397	6,895,255	316,294	2,715,018	4,929,815	6,861,314	892,306	2,376,328	...	34,881,727
1820	11,289,891	7,139,612	393,298	3,810,290	3,875,286	5,756,864	939,781	2,921,300	...	36,126,329
1821	9,044,155	6,859,287	482,117	4,277,790	6,214,875	5,461,863	1,050,778	2,942,237	...	36,333,102
1822	8,327,576	8,273,986	384,944	3,984,796	6,865,262	4,778,721	868,040	3,166,714	...	36,650,039
1823	8,055,638	6,801,490	507,328	3,941,448	5,464,874	5,311,757	1,073,914	4,218,893	...	36,375,342
1824	7,691,357	8,007,583	417,741	3,692,404	6,090,394	5,779,033	1,171,221	5,572,579	...	38,422,312
1825	8,547,781	6,098,577	401,588	3,622,981	7,018,934	5,847,287	907,988	6,425,715	...	38,870,851
1826	7,822,776	6,070,494	295,768	4,322,240	4,659,018	4,601,072	570,409	3,194,947	...	31,536,724
1827	8,533,263	5,945,701	671,488	4,799,452	7,018,272	4,980,572	907,309	4,004,319	...	36,860,376
1828	8,243,082	5,532,788	716,926	4,892,408	5,810,315	4,980,748	818,056	5,489,005	...	36,483,328
1829	8,346,118	6,199,356	828,729	4,231,350	4,823,415	5,193,808	969,885	4,929,966	...	35,522,627
1830	8,376,751	7,233,887	905,220	4,455,392	6,132,346	4,695,581	939,822	5,188,562	...	37,927,561
1831	7,317,870	6,232,570	803,392	4,105,444	9,053,583	4,671,276	1,039,634	3,615,969	...	36,839,738
1832	9,897,057	5,686,949	880,753	4,235,483	5,468,272	4,515,533	1,176,804	4,272,247	...	36,133,098
1833	9,313,589	6,298,200	937,015	4,711,619	7,579,699	4,690,139	958,756	4,842,396	...	39,331,413
1834	9,505,892	8,501,141	993,120	4,644,318	6,844,989	4,351,093	1,270,302	5,177,671	...	41,288,526
1835	10,303,316	8,161,117	1,146,047	5,456,116	10,568,455	5,345,698	1,152,841	4,887,068	...	47,020,658
1836	9,999,861	9,011,205	1,468,062	6,750,842	12,425,605	6,518,744	1,238,785	5,955,468	...	53,368,572

ports in 1770, and in such of the years between that time and the year 1801 as have had their transactions recorded in public documents, was as follows:—

1770	£10,013,803	1786	£11,830,194
1771	11,721,853	1787	12,054,224
1772	10,973,737	1788	12,724,293
1773	9,417,768	1789	13,779,506
1774	10,558,589	1790	14,921,084
1784	11,274,428	1791	16,420,056
1785	11,081,810		

It will be seen, on comparing the amount of official value in 1770 with the amount in 1801, as stated in the table, page 98, that an increase had taken place amounting to 14,913,881*l.*, or very nearly 150 per cent. If then we compare 1801 with 1832, when an equal period of thirty-one years had elapsed, we shall find an increase of 40,099,018*l.*, or 160 per cent.

The quantity and value of all the principal articles of British produce and manufactures that were exported in each of the ten years from 1827 to 1836, and the proportions in which those shipments were made to different countries, are shown in the following Tables, which thus exhibit the most accurate view that can be given by any Custom-house document, of the actual and relative importance of each branch of our foreign commerce:—

Statement of the Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures Exported from the United Kingdom, specifying the various Countries to which the same were Exported, in each Year from 1827 to 1836.

COUNTRIES.	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Russia	1,408,970	1,318,936	1,435,805	1,489,538	1,191,565	1,537,250	1,531,002	1,382,300	1,752,775	1,742,433
Sweden	46,731	42,699	38,252	40,488	57,127	64,932	59,549	63,094	105,156	113,308
Norway	39,129	53,582	64,234	63,926	58,580	34,528	55,038	61,988	79,278	79,469
Denmark	104,916	111,880	95,247	118,813	92,294	93,396	99,951	94,595	107,979	91,302
Prussia	174,338	179,145	189,011	177,923	192,816	258,556	144,179	136,423	188,273	160,722
Germany	4,654,618	4,394,104	4,473,555	4,463,605	3,642,952	5,068,997	4,355,548	4,547,166	4,602,966	4,463,729
Holland	2,104,561	2,142,736	2,050,014	2,022,458	2,082,536	2,789,398	2,181,893	2,470,267	2,648,402	2,509,622
Belgium							886,429	750,059	818,487	839,276
France	446,952	498,938	491,388	475,884	602,688	674,791	848,333	1,116,885	1,453,636	1,591,381
Portugal Proper	1,400,044	945,016	1,195,404	1,106,695	975,991	540,792	967,091	1,600,123	1,554,326	1,085,934
,, Azores	26,687	27,940	31,244	23,629	41,638	77,920	54,430	63,275	49,717	53,574
,, Madeira	39,916	39,802	40,283	38,444	38,960	28,038	33,411	38,455	40,082	52,168
Spain and the Balearic Islands	225,414	301,158	861,675	607,068	597,848	442,926	442,837	325,907	405,065	437,076
,, Canaries	48,821	38,152	50,010	42,620	33,282	21,053	30,507	30,686	24,309	40,370
Gibraltar	1,045,266	1,038,925	504,163	292,760	367,285	461,470	385,460	460,719	602,580	756,411
Italy and the Italian Islands	1,942,752	2,176,149	2,202,030	3,251,379	2,490,376	2,361,772	2,316,260	3,282,777	2,426,171	2,921,466
Malta	200,949	239,458	224,010	189,135	134,519	96,994	135,438	242,696	136,925	143,015
Ionian Islands	37,196	41,078	30,465	56,963	50,883	55,725	38,915	94,498	107,804	109,123
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	531,704	185,842	568,684	1,139,616	888,654	915,319	1,019,604	1,207,941	1,331,669	1,775,034
Morea and Greek Islands		335	..	9,694	10,446	10,149	25,914	37,179	28,834	12,003
Syria and Palestine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33,650
Egypt (Ports on the Mediterranean)	53,624	35,302	59,305	110,227	122,832	113,109	145,647	158,877	269,225	216,930
Tripoli, Barbary, & Morocco	8,201	13,745	..	1,138	426	751	2,350	14,823	29,040	29,322
Western Coast of Africa	155,759	191,452	244,253	252,123	234,763	290,061	329,216	326,483	292,510	467,186

Cape of Good Hope	216,558	218,049	257,501	330,036	257,245	292,405	346,197	304,382	326,921	482,315
Cape Verd Islands	76	5,856	240	1,710	215	..	146	530	575	413
St. Helena	41,430	31,302	45,531	38,915	39,431	21,236	30,041	31,615	31,187	11,041
Isle of Bourbon	127	35,188	16,341	10,042	..	..	..	7,091	..	..
Mauritius	195,713	185,972	205,558	161,029	148,475	163,191	83,424	149,319	196,559	260,855
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	250	6,049	16,358
East India Company's Territories and Ceylon	3,662,012	4,256,582	3,659,218	3,895,530	3,377,412	3,514,779	3,495,301	2,578,569	3,192,692	4,285,829
China	610,637	..	..	..	..	..	..	842,852	1,074,708	1,326,388
Sumatra and Java	120,747	189,200	255,885	162,102	285,296	156,606	471,712	410,273	353,892	234,852
Philippine Islands	65,926	300	4,721	71,220	39,513	102,284	185,298	76,618	129,743	51,778
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	339,958	443,839	310,681	314,677	398,471	466,238	558,372	716,014	696,345	835,637
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	172	2,487	845	1,396	4,752	1,576	936	..	2,687	..
Ports of Siam	..	..	..	10,467	..	..	..	19,742	..	..
British North American Colonies	1,397,350	1,691,044	1,581,723	1,857,133	2,089,327	2,075,725	2,092,550	1,671,069	2,158,158	2,732,291
British West Indies	3,583,222	3,289,704	3,612,085	2,838,448	2,581,949	2,439,808	2,597,589	2,680,024	3,187,540	3,786,453
Hayti	257,931	248,328	297,709	321,793	376,103	543,104	381,528	357,297	365,798	251,663
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	649,378	569,728	672,176	618,029	663,531	633,700	577,228	913,005	787,043	987,122
United States of America	7,018,272	5,810,315	4,823,415	6,132,346	9,053,583	5,468,272	7,579,699	6,844,989	10,568,455	12,425,605
Mexico	692,800	307,029	303,562	978,441	728,858	199,821	421,487	459,610	402,820	254,892
Guatemala	1,943	6,191	..	..	..	..	3,700	30,366	15,214	764
Columbia	213,972	261,113	232,703	216,751	248,250	283,568	121,826	199,996	132,242	185,172
Brazil	2,312,109	3,518,297	2,516,040	2,452,103	1,238,371	2,144,903	2,575,680	2,460,679	2,630,767	3,030,532
States of the Rio de la Plata	154,895	312,389	758,540	632,172	339,870	660,152	515,362	831,564	658,525	697,334
Chili	400,134	709,371	818,950	540,626	651,617	708,193	816,817	896,221	606,176	861,903
Peru	238,466	374,615	300,171	368,469	409,003	275,610	387,524	299,235	441,324	606,332
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	320,959	329,428	319,996	344,036	324,634	317,496	335,934	360,665	351,612	318,609
Total	37,181,335	36,812,756	35,842,623	38,271,597	37,164,372	36,450,594	39,667,347	41,649,191	47,372,270	53,368,572

Statement of the Quantity and declared Value of each of the Exported from the United Kingdom,

ARTICLES.	1827.		1828.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£.		£.
Apparel.....Value	..	892,529	..	910,090
Arms and Ammun. ,,	..	406,312	..	335,761
Bacon and Hams...Cwts.	11,072	37,324	8,333	28,809
Beef and Pork .....Brls.	61,164	184,412	33,451¼	113,906
Beer and Ale .....Tuns	10,267¼	219,981	11,374	245,496
Books (Printed).... Cwts.	4,186	107,199	4,336	102,874
Brass and Copper Manufactures ..... ,,	147,222	786,955	128,106	678,786
Butter and Cheese... ,,	84,300	315,825	94,623	352,615
Coals, Culm, and Cinders .....Tons.	368,679	153,387	357,864	145,943
Cordage.....Cwts.	56,889	132,625	52,420	119,652
Cotton Manufactures .....Yards	365,492,804	12,948,035	363,328,431	12,483,249
Cotton, Twist, & Yarn lbs.	44,878,774	3,545,578	50,505,751	3,595,205
Hosiery, Lace, and Small Wares.....Value	..	1,144,552	..	1,165,763
Earthenware.....Pieces	34,638,366	439,032	38,136,479	502,215
Fish (Herrings)... Brls.	127,039	153,665	134,137	157,532
Glass, Ent. by Wght. Cwts.	224,497	525,715	216,895	491,211
,, at Value. Value	..	8,834	..	9,145
Hardwares ..... Cwts.	249,152	1,394,881	242,272	1,387,204
Hats, Beav. & Felt Dozs.	75,497	175,462	83,114	197,581
Iron and Steel ..... Tons	92,313	1,215,561	100,403	1,226,617
Lead and Shot .... ,,	13,275	256,425	10,021	177,983
Leather (Wrought and Unwrought). lbs.	1,402,785	294,815	1,321,542	273,976
Saddlery & Harn. . Value	..	88,715	..	89,600
Linen Manuf., Ent. by the Yard .. .. Yds.	55,132,189	2,057,351	60,287,814	2,120,276
Lin Manuf., Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares ..... Value	..	71,032	..	66,146
Linen Yarn ..... lbs.	..	..	..	..
Machinery and Mill Work..... Value	..	201,802	..	262,115
Painters' Colours . ,,	..	125,808	..	138,669
Plate, Pd. Wre., Jewellery, & Watches ,,	..	169,456	..	181,973
Salt . ..... Bushs.	7,475,025	123,612	8,993,124	154,245
Silk Manufactures . Value	..	236,113	..	255,871
Soap and Candles . lbs.	10,586,580	271,983	10,902,713	269,109
Stationery ..... Value	..	195,110	..	208,532
Sugar (Refined) .. Cwts.	409,060	963,703	456,844	1,038,569
Tin (Unwrought).. ,,	49,474	187,888	41,427	147,131
Tin & Pewter Wrs. and Tin Plates... Value	..	302,255	..	266,651
Wool (Sp.'s & Lb 's) lbs.	278,552	14,538	1,669,389	76,881
Woollen Manuf., viz.—				
Entd. by the Piece. Pieces	1,851,946	4,565,370	1,180,631¼	4,397,291
Entd by the Yard. Yards	6,460,094	540,915	6,816,407	527,476
Hosiery & Sml. Wrs. Value	..	177,294	..	201,216
Woollen & Wrstd. Yn. lbs.	..	..	..	..
All other Articles...Value	..	1,549,246	..	1,709,192
Total Declared Value	..	37,181,335	..	36,812,756

Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures in each Year, from 1827 to 1836.

1829.		1830.		1831.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	£.		£.		£.
..	786,437	..	772,834	..	790,293
..	279,387	..	241,641	..	562,765
10,039	33,809	12,197	35,520	7,564	22,689
56,703	174,920	61,816	159,730	41,243	117,922
11,365	249,124	10,212	212,564	8,844	161,768
4,427	109,878	4,025	95,874	4,112	101,110
163,241	812,366	189,592	867,344	181,951	803,124
89,875	293,156	73,124	263,176	63,260	254,024
371,271	147,309	504,419	184,464	510,831	199,760
44,653	105,663	35,658	84,085	36,276	81,986
402,517,196	12,516,247	444,578,498	14,119,770	421,385,303	12,163,513
61,441,251	3,976,874	64,645,342	4,133,741	63,821,440	3,975,019
..	1,041,885	..	1,175,153	..	1,118,672
36,794,221	463,986	34,733,614	442,193	37,028,897	461,090
122,764	162,474	167,599	197,043	96,712	109,656
202,798	467,819	189,757	394,314	177,915	420,044
..	7,146	..	7,229	..	9,580
260,899	1,390,551	267,731	1,412,107	336,194	1,622,429
81,182	189,469	77,061	209,849	62,854	170,188
108,275	1,162,931	117,420	1,078,523	124,312	1,123,372
6,834	114,555	7,442	106,789	6,797	96,333
1,338,987	268,380	1,495,003	257,130	1,314,931	246,410
..	83,303	..	78,321	..	61,312
57,698,372	1,953,607	61,919,963	2,017,776	69,233,892	2,400,043
..	52,037	..	48,648	..	61,661
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	253,984	..	208,767	..	105,491
..	131,079	..	100,244	..	102,065
..	177,830	..	190,515	..	188,144
10,574,951	174,889	10,499,778	183,604	9,932,211	165,437
..	267,930	..	521,010	..	578,874
9,123,503	226,227	10,266,514	246,592	9,625,686	236,499
..	190,652	..	171,848	..	179,216
475,561	984,918	607,580	1,288,078	581,836	1,238,919
33,215	120,105	30,425	106,134	21,763	77,718
..	235,178	..	249,657	..	230,143
1,332,097	60,801	2,951,100	144,713	3,494,275	173,105
1,773,060	4,056,266	1,747,036	4,174,990	1,997,348	4,580,902
5,298,495	426,501	5,561,877	433,602	5,797,546	500,926
..	178,483	..	242,505	..	150,155
..	..	..	..	1,592,455	158,111
..	1,514,407	..	1,413,520	..	1,363,874
..	35,842,623	..	38,271,597	..	37,164,372

Statement of the Quantity and Declared Value of each of the

ARTICLES.	1832.		1833.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		£.		£.
Apparel.....Value	....	712,346	....	789,148
Arms and Ammun. ,,	....	274,958	....	322,773
Bacon and Hams..Cwts.	5,972	18,705	11,114	32,657
Beef and Pork ....Barls.	26,151	88,650	49,573	144,729
Beer and Ale .....Tuns	11,330	204,001	11,629	206,935
Books (Printed)...Cwts.	4,115	93,038	5,399	124,535
Brass and Copper Manufactures.... ,,	213,482	916,563	192,974	884,149
Butter and Cheese ,,	72,349	264,721	76,105	254,085
Coals, Culm, and Cinders.....Tons	588,446	228,615	634,448	231,344
Cordage.....Cwts.	49,652	100,768	59,940	101,747
Cotton Manufactures.....Yards	461,045,503	11,500,630	496,352,096	12,451,060
Cotton, Twist, Yarn, lbs.	75,667,150	4,722,759	70,626,161	4,704,024
Hosiery, Lace, and Small Wares ....Value	....	1,175,003	....	1,331,317
Earthenware .....Pieces	43,265,283	490,787	46,258,549	496,963
Fish (Herrings)...Barls	121,399	146,854	158,602	173,427
Glass, entd. by Wt.Cwts.	189,809	394,858	199,125	436,604
,, ,, at Val.Value	....	7,899	....	9,241
Hardwares ..... Cwts.	306,143	1,434,431	329,955	1,466,362
Hats, Beav. & FeltDozns.	55,458	144,596	43,138	130,242
Iron and Steel....Tons	147,636	1,190,749	162,815	1,405,035
Lead and Shot.... ,,	12,181	144,653	9,015	128,714
Leather (Wrought and Unwrought), lbs.	1,407,729	244,393	1,652,579	279,524
Saddlery & Harns.Value	....	54,583	....	60,013
Linen Manufactrs., entered by the Yd.Yards	49,531,057	1,716,084	63,232,509	2,097,273
Linen Manufactrs., Thread, Tapes, & Small Wares ....Value	....	58,643	....	69,751
Linen Yarn .....lbs.	110,188	8,705	935,682	72,006
Machinery and Mill Work.....Value	....	92,715	....	127,064
Painters' Colours . ,,	....	116,084	....	135,822
Plate, Plated Ware, Jewlly. & Watchs. ,,	....	173,593	....	179,283
Salt. .....Bushls.	10,561,861	149,678	11,670,434	184,176
Silk Manufactures Value	....	529,691	....	737,404
Soap and Candles lbs.	13,636,425	315,641	17,052,304	364,285
Stationery.....Value	....	177,778	....	211,518
Sugar (Refined)...Cwts.	455,847	1,038,789	245,698	563,092
Tin (Unwrought) . ,,	31,838	111,797	24,989	86,986
Tin & Pewt. Wares and Tin Plates...Value	....	243,259	....	282,176
Wool, Shp.'s & Lbs.' lbs.	4,199,825	219,650	4,992,110	332,504
Wooln. Manfacts.. *viz.* Entd. by the Piece, Pieces	2,296,686	4,633,306	2,384,122	5,533,936
Entd. by the Yard, Yards	6,010,704	474,518	7,455,611	568,448
Hosry. & Sm. Ws Value	....	136,655	....	192,048
Wool. & Wrstd. Yn. lbs.	2,204,464	235,30	2,107,478	246,204
All other Articles .Value	....	1,464,194	....	1,528,753
Total Declared Value..	....	36,450,594	....	39,667,347

Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce, &c.—*continued.*

1834.		1835.		1836.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	£.		£.		£.
..	782,258	..	1,014,838	..	1,292,379
..	313,038	..	407,573	..	411,286
18,583	41,087	12,434	30,422	14,536	44,883
62,090	151,971	60,953	148,095	48,832	164,920
10,406	186,321	12,880	229,824	15,148	270,915
5,354	122,595	6,990	148,318	8,257	178,945
205,660	961,823	242,095	1,094,749	204,835	1,072,344
88,396	281,881	88,508	289,919	75,243	300,674
615,255	220,746	736,060	244,898	916,868	332,861
59,655	93,631	51,975	82,899	53,058	87,401
555,705,809	14,127,352	557,515,701	15,181,431	637,667,627	17,183,167
76,478,468	5,211,015	83,214,198	5,706,589	88,191,046	6,120,366
..	1,175,219	..	1,240,284	..	1,328,525
44,015,623	493,382	45,893,446	540,421	62,795,317	837,774
118,799	133,993	132,103	139,291	131,141	134,590
199,051	484,696	240,733	617,764	250,974	536,601
..	12,176	..	22,642	..	16,783
325,512	1,485,233	403,940	1,833,043	421,442	2,271,313
40,155	125,970	46,849	135,800	53,984	148,282
158,166	1,406,872	199,007	1,643,741	192 352	2,342,674
8,672	142,315	11,082	195,144	9,769	224,981
1,617,421	248,302	2,104,318	285,934	2,042,471	322,546
..	63,095	..	74,462	..	94,059
67,834,305	2,357,991	77,977,089	2,893,139	82,088,760	3,238,031
..	85,355	..	99,004	..	88,294
1,533,325	136,312	2,611,215	216,635	4,574,504	318,772
..	211,982	..	307,951	..	302,092
..	123,207	..	169,933	..	210,900
..	192,269	..	231,903	..	338,889
11,093,674	152,127	8,317,029	144,489	9,622,427	173,923
..	637,198	..	973,786	..	917,822
14,315,539	263,972	15,681,808	276,031	15,813,406	295,510
..	211,459	..	259,105	..	301,121
401,044	916,391	349,371	852,487	248,644	698,190
9,351	33,327	7,765	32,290	11,152	61,847
..	337,056	..	381,076	..	387,951
2,278,721	192,176	4,642,604	387,925	3,942,407	332,374
1,910,086	5,017,108	2,390,095	5,962,533	2,224,566	6,647,392
6,689,147	551,635	7,907,198	672,843	9,099,824	754,364
..	168,128	..	205,155	..	237,598
1,861,814	238,544	2,357,336	309,091	2,546,177	358,690
..	1,557,780	..	1,688,829	..	1,986,543
..	41,649,191	..	47,372,270	..	53,368,572

Some few remarks appear to be necessary here, in order to prevent our falling into mistakes as regards our foreign trade with some of the countries particularised in the foregoing table (pp. 104 and 105). Under the head of Prussia we see a value assigned to the exports which is quite inconsiderable, and which, if left unexplained, might lead to a very wrong conclusion. A very small part of the British goods which find their way to Prussia for consumption are exported direct to any Prussian port: some of those goods pass through the Netherlands to the Rhenish provinces, and still more are shipped to Hamburg and other ports in the North of Germany, whence they are forwarded by land-carriage to the interior. In an official statement compiled at Berlin, to show the amount of importations into the Prussian States, as to which this kingdom was interested in the years 1832, 1833, and 1834, the value is thus given:—

	1832.	1833.	1834.
British Produce and Manufactures....	£13,712,700	£12,826,380	£10,531,010
Other Goods (Colonial Produce, &c.)	5,012,300	4,655,050	5,583,760
	£18,725,000	£17,481,430	£16,114,770

The rates of valuation applied in the computation of these amounts are very greatly exaggerated; but when the necessary allowance shall be made for this fact, it will still be found that the Prussians are far better customers to our manufacturers than would appear upon the face of our public documents.

Spain appears, from the foregoing table, to take from us goods to a very inconsiderable amount; and there can be no doubt that, if the political troubles of that country were at an end, and if a more rational system of com-

mercial policy than has hitherto been pursued were adopted by the Spanish government, our trade with Spain must increase in a most important degree. Still that trade is at present much greater in reality than it is in appearance; a large part of the goods exported from this country to Gibraltar and to Portugal being afterwards introduced clandestinely into the Spanish provinces. The extent of the contraband trade carried on at Gibraltar is strikingly exhibited by the fact, that the annual importation of tobacco into that colony amounts to from six to eight millions of pounds; nearly the whole of which is purchased by smugglers, and introduced by them clandestinely into Spain.

The value of our exports to the whole of the west coast of Africa averaged, during the five years ending with 1836, the sum of 341,091*l.* per annum. More than one half of this amount was taken by the British settlements on the Gambia, Sierra Leone, Cape Coast Castle, and Accrah, leaving little more than 150,000*l.* for the remaining parts of the country, embracing, between the river Gambia and Angola, nearly four thousand miles of coast, and containing upon a moderate estimate 30,000,000 of inhabitants. These people must not be considered, as regards commercial objects, in the same light as those who enjoy a greater degree of civilization; but the experience of the last 30 years affords sufficient proof of the value which the trade with the negro population might be made to assume. In 1808 the whole quantity of palm oil imported did not exceed 200 tons; in 1836 it amounted to 13,850 tons. Twenty years ago African timber was unknown to us, and now our annual importations amount to 15,000 loads. This increase has taken place, too, under the most unfavourable circumstances. The whole

country is disorganised, and except in the immediate vicinity of the towns, the land lies waste and uncultivated, the wretched natives living under constant dread of being carried off into slavery. The extent to which the accursed traffic in human beings is carried on up to this hour is sufficiently notorious, and has at length so aroused attention, that it seems highly probable it will be soon effectually put down. The legitimate trade of our vessels when on the African coast is continually impeded by the appearance of slave traders, on the arrival of which, the natives quit all other occupations and proceed on marauding expeditions, to seize the members of some neighbouring tribe, and sell them as slaves. Until a sufficient number of these poor creatures is collected to crowd the vessel of the slave trader all other occupations are stopped, and it is not merely the loss of time and consequent expense thus occasioned that are to be deplored, but the great waste of life among the crews of the English traders while uselessly detained upon an unhealthy coast. Everywhere are to be seen the baleful effects of this traffic, producing desolation where Nature has been prodigal of her gifts. According to Mr. Laird, one of the most recent travellers in that region, "The Delta of the Niger alone, if cleared and cultivated, would support a population in proportion to its area far exceeding anything known in Europe. Its square surface is equal to the whole of Ireland; it is intersected in all directions by navigable branches of the parent stream, forming so many natural channels for communication: it is altogether composed of the richest alluvial soil, which now teems with a rank luxurious vegetation, comprising all the varieties of the palm-tree, besides teak-wood, cedar, ebony, mahogany, and dye-woods: the sugar-cane grows

wild in the bush, and the palm-nut rots upon the ground unheeded and neglected. The population of this Delta I should consider does not exceed half a million."

If the population of this region—and there are many others to which the same description might be applied—were weaned from their present habits of violence, and if advantage were taken of their desire for obtaining some kinds of European manufactures, to engage them in the cultivation of the soil, can it be believed that our commercial dealings with them would continue, as it is at present, scarcely greater in amount than the value of the eggs brought annually from Ireland to the single port of Liverpool? Among the objects to which the industry of Africans could be profitably applied, perhaps the most important is the article of cotton. Its cultivation does not call for any great amount of labour; the returns are speedily obtained; the market for it is continually being extended; and, as regards this country, it is a matter of very high importance that the million of persons who are dependent for their daily subsistence upon the regular supply of that material should have the chances of disappointment lessened, as far as possible, by extending the number of the producers, and multiplying the regions in which they are found.

There is reason to believe that the goods exported from the United Kingdom to our North American Colonies do not all remain for the consumption of the colonists, but that a portion is conveyed across the Saint Lawrence into the territory of the United States. On the other hand, some shipments made apparently to the United States accompany English settlers who proceed through the States to their ultimate destination in Upper Canada; but the value in both these cases must be comparatively unimportant. Of the exports to the British

West Indies, some part is shipped *in transitu*, and goes for consumption to Cuba, and to ports on the Mosquito coast. The whole amount assigned to Turkey does not properly belong to our trade with that country, some part being sent forward to Asia Minor and Persia. With regard to the exports to our West India Colonies, it may further be observed, that the *value* of late years has very materially fallen off, which fact is probably owing, in part, to the peculiar nature of the population, for the supply of which given quantities of stores and clothing are required, without reference to their cost in this country; so that the reduction in price of the generality of articles which make up the sum of our exports has not been followed by much, if any, increased consumption. Besides this, some goods were in former years sent to Jamaica, intended for the supply of the neighbouring continent, to which shipments are now made direct from this country.

It will be seen that the value of our exports to India and China did not experience any increase until after the partial opening of the trade in 1814. Since that time, and particularly since 1826, a considerable improvement has taken place in the amount of our commerce with India; so that, contrasting its amount in 1835 with that in 1814, there is found an increase of 133 per cent. The recent opening of the trade with China is calculated to add still more importantly to the value of our commerce with that quarter of the world. This trade at first may be accompanied by serious losses to many of those who engage in it without possessing the requisite degree of knowledge; but it cannot be doubted that a few years' experience on the part of our merchants will enable them to draw very great advantages from commercial intercourse with a people so enterprising and so

keenly alive to the benefits resulting from foreign trade, as the Chinese are now allowed to be. Already the consumers in this country have benefited by the opening of the trade with China, in the greatly diminished price of an article of general and daily consumption; and there is every reason to hope that the individual skill and enterprise now directed to this trade will succeed in making continual additions to its amount, until it bears a more reasonable proportion than it has hitherto done to the trading capabilities of the inhabitants of that thickly-populated country. This trade was thrown open on the expiration of the East India Company's Charter in April, 1834. Since that time the declared value of English manufactures exported to China has been—

	£.
1834	842,852
1835	1,074,708
1836	1,326,388

Previously to 1834 no distinction had been made in the Custom-house records between the exports to India and those made to China, nor will this deficiency of information be supplied by the statement of the amount of shipping employed in the trade, because a great part of the trading intercourse of British subjects with China is carried on through the intermediate ports of India; and this was the case to a greater degree formerly than it is at present. As the best source of information that is open to us upon this subject, the following statement is given, showing the number and tonnage of vessels that cleared out from the United Kingdom for China, and that entered inwards from that kingdom, in each year, from 1830 to 1836:—

	Outwards.						Inwards.	
	British.		Foreign.		Total.		British.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1830	16	21,033	2	789	18	21,822	22	27,782
1831	22	28,081	3	1126	25	29,207	21	27,889
1832	19	24,648	2	794	21	25,442	20	25,237
1833	25	29,627	3	1087	28	30,714	21	27,985
1834	16	8,887	4	1476	20	10,363	30	29,308
1835	23	21,218	..	..	23	21,218	67	35,427
1836	38	24,099	..	..	38	24,099	80	40,686

The discriminating duties which, until lately, have been charged upon certain articles of East India produce have naturally tended to prevent the increase of that branch of our trade. A wiser policy is now recognised and followed, and will no doubt be productive of solid advantages to the people of this country, as well as to the natives of Hindustan. The capabilities of that vast region are hitherto but very imperfectly known in Europe; and, indeed, until the Act of 1833 which prohibited the East India Company from trading, and which gave to British-born subjects the right to settle for commercial and agricultural purposes in British India, there was but little inducement to cultivate that field of inquiry. Since that right has been conceded, the attention of the public has been forcibly drawn to the subject. A committee of gentlemen conversant with the capabilities of India, and well informed as to the trading and manufacturing wants of England, has been formed, under the auspices of the Royal Asiatic Society; and it is confidently hoped that, through the exertions of the gentlemen forming that committee, many branches of industry may be fostered in India, which will afford supplies to our artisans of several articles better in quality and at a less cost than the same goods, or substitutes for them, are now procured from other countries. Nor is it

only by the encouragement of new branches of commerce that the two countries are to experience benefit. Much may be done to give encouragement to the production and transmission of articles already imported. The discriminating duty so long continued upon East India sugar, for the advantage of the West India planters, has at length been repealed; and there is no reason to doubt that the application of British skill and capital, for the manufacture of sugar in India, will be successful in producing improvement in its quality, so as to make it serve every purpose to which the produce of the West Indies is now applied. There is, perhaps, no one circumstance that would tend so much to increase the commerce of India as the opening of good roads. The course of the great rivers is at present available, at least during part of the year, for the conveyance of Indian products towards the coast; but this means of transport is of little avail for the return trade; and even the partial facility of water conveyance is confined to only a small part of the peninsula. Good roads would be practicable at all periods of the year, and in every part of the country; and would be equally available for the transmission of English goods to the inner and upper provinces of India, as for the conveyance of their products to the coast. This improvement is especially needed in the cotton-yielding districts, where the present expensive mode of conveyance upon the backs of oxen acts most injuriously, by enhancing the cost of an article which it is of the utmost importance to our Lancashire manufacturers to receive as abundantly and at as cheap a rate as possible. As a political measure, the construction of roads in India would prove highly advantageous. Their cost would be quickly and amply repaid by the improving revenues of the country, and by the grateful

feelings that would be raised on the part of the native population. The inhabitant of Western Europe, who has always been accustomed to have brought to his door every article that he can desire, and that his means can purchase, can have but a faint idea of the privations experienced by great multitudes of the inhabitants of Hindustan; and it may be confidently said that the government that should place within the reach of the poor cultivators an ample supply of salt,—an article, the obtaining of which never costs us a thought,—would be sure to receive the blessings of millions. It has been stated by a gentleman, acquainted, by long residence in different parts of India, with the practices and capabilities of the country, that the difference in the cost of transporting goods along the present ill-formed roads in the rude carts or *hackerys* of the natives, is less by six-sevenths than the cost of conveyance on the backs of oxen—a course so commonly rendered necessary through the absence of everything to which the name of a road can be applied. In the level plains of Candeish, and in many other parts of Hindustan, cotton-wool, freed from the seed, could be sold on the spot with a profit to the cultivators at one penny per pound,—a cost which is trebled or quadrupled by the expense of conveyance to the ports of shipment.

A discriminating duty at the rate of 28*s.* per cwt., or 50 per cent., was, until lately, imposed upon coffee, the growth of the British possessions in India, for the benefit of the planters in our Western colonies. Until 1825, this discriminating duty amounted to 56*s.* per cwt., but was at that time comparatively but little felt, because, owing to the excessive duty levied upon all descriptions of coffee, the consumption of the kingdom was below the supply obtained from our West India colonies, and as

the surplus had to seek a market in foreign countries, the prices of every description of coffee were necessarily governed by the demands of the world in general. In the year just mentioned the duties previously levied upon all kinds of coffee were reduced one half. The produce of the British plantations in America has thenceforward been admitted to consumption at the rate of 6*d.* per lb. or 56*s.* per cwt. East India coffee from British possessions was charged 9*d.* per lb. or 84*s.* per cwt., and all other kinds were and still are charged 1*s.* 3*d.* or 140*s.* per cwt., amounting to a prohibition against consumption. The consequence of the reduction in 1825 was to increase the annual consumption of coffee from about 8,000,000lbs. in 1824 to 22,000,000lbs. in 1830, which increase, as might be expected, occurred almost entirely with the produce of our West India colonies, and as the power of production in these colonies is limited, and by this increased demand consumption had overtaken that limit, the price of West India coffee was driven up to a rate so high that the difference of 28*s.* per cwt. did not prevent the use of an increased quantity of the produce of our Indian possessions. The price of fine Jamaica coffee, which at the time the duty was reduced was about 90*s.* per cwt., advanced, through the demands of the consumers, to 125*s.* per cwt., but without producing any increased production. The quantity annually imported of British plantation coffee, in the five years that preceded the reduction of the duty in 1825, averaged 30,280,360lbs., and the average quantity imported in the five years from 1832 to 1836 reached only 19,812,160lbs., being a reduction of 34 per cent. in the supply, notwithstanding an advance of 39 per cent. in price, thus proving beyond all cavil the inability of the West India planters to keep pace

with the wants of the English consumers. In September 1835 our tariff was so far modified, that coffee imported from the British possessions in India, if accompanied by a certificate of its being of the actual produce of those possessions, is admitted to consumption, on payment of the same rate of duty as British plantation coffee. The full result of this measure it is yet too early to estimate. The quantity of East India coffee taken for consumption while the duty remained at 9*d.* per lb. advanced, because of the increasing price of West India coffee, as already noticed, from about 300,000lbs. per annum to about 1,500,000lbs. The assimilation of the rates of duty did not take effect until two-thirds of 1835 had elapsed, but in that year the consumption of East India coffee advanced to 5,596,791lbs., and in 1837 reached 9,114,793lbs. A few years must necessarily elapse before the production of coffee can be increased in any particular place, but there is reason to expect that the stimulus afforded by high prices will not be checked in our Eastern, as it has been in our Western, possessions, through natural causes, and that continually growing supplies may be furnished, until the English public will no longer be forced to pay a monopoly price for this agreeable article of food. The price of Ceylon coffee in our markets at this time (November 1837) is 75*s.* per cwt., at least one half of which price is surplus profit to the growers, who, competing with each other, will naturally extend their cultivation until the price of their produce shall be no longer excessive; and thus it may not be necessary, as regards the consumers, to enlarge the market of supply, by removing the prohibitory rates imposed on the produce of Cuba and Brazil. If, however, the sound principles, that no duties should be levied except for purposes of revenue, and that it is unjust

and unwise to tax the whole community for the supposed benefit of a part, were recognised and fully acted upon, so that the price of any imported article were not enhanced by means of the duty in a greater degree than the actual amount of the duty, there can be no doubt of the advantages that would result to the country at large, through all its various interests, by the increased activity that would be imparted to its foreign commerce.

Much has been done during the last few years, beyond what has been already particularly noticed, to simplify our tariff and to reduce or abolish duties charged upon the raw materials of manufacture, and there is every reason for believing that the subsequent extension of our foreign trade has been greatly owing to that cause. There is still much to be done in this way. The two great monopolies of corn and timber, the first maintained for the benefit of the possessors of land, the second conceded to the clamour of a certain class of ship-owners, are now the chief remaining obstacles to the growth of our commercial relations with European nations. These monopolies, the injustice of which to the nation at large has been so often and so unanswerably shown, cannot much longer be suffered to interfere with the onward course of the country. It is now the general opinion that the most grievous of the two, that which condemns the people to pay more for their food than is paid by the inhabitants of other countries, must be swept away at the very first occurrence of an unfavourable harvest, and there are strong grounds for believing that the colonists, for the pretended benefit of whom the present discriminating duty on timber is continued, will shortly add their efforts to those of the consumers in this country for its abolition.

It is a mistake to suppose, as generally is done, that

this high discriminating duty was originally imposed for the benefit either of the North American colonists or of the English shipowners: neither the one nor the other of those parties was thought of in the business any further than as they might be made the means of relieving the consumers of timber in this country from the evil consequences resulting to them through our exclusion from ports in the Baltic. The discriminating duty was not intended to have been continued after the necessity out of which it arose should have passed away with the return of peace. The duty upon a load (fifty cubic feet) of European timber, which at the beginning of the war had been 6*s*. 8*d*., was raised by inconsiderable steps to 27*s*. 2*d*. in 1806; this rate was doubled in 1811, and in 1813 the duty was further advanced to 65*s*. Colonial timber was admitted free of duty up to 1798, when it was subjected to 3 per cent. *ad valorem;* from 1803 to 1806 the *ad valorem* rate was changed to a specific duty of about 2*s*. per load, and in the latter year was again altogether removed. In 1821, in consequence of the recommendations of Committees of the two Houses of Parliament, the system was so far altered that the rate upon European timber was reduced to 55*s*., while upon colonial timber a duty was imposed of 10*s*. per load, and those rates have continued to the present time. The colonial timber trade cannot be said to have existed previous to 1803. In the fifteen years that occurred from 1788 to 1802, while our importations of European fir timber amounted to nearly 3,000,000 loads, we imported from the American colonies only 19,429 loads. In 1803 the quantity so imported was 10,113 loads, but from that time it increased rapidly, first from the stimulus of high prices occasioned by the events of the war, and afterwards in consequence of the greater preference given to colonial

timber by our tariff. The price of Memel timber, which in 1802 had been 78*s.* per load, with a duty of 16*s.* 10*d.*, advanced in 1807 to 150*s.*, and in 1809 to 320*s.*, the duty having in the mean time been raised to 27*s.* 2*d.*, as above stated. Under these circumstances, it might perhaps be wise to stimulate the importation of colonial timber, but so soon as the return of peace again opened to us our old channels of supply, there could be no good reason for burthening the people with a heavy tax, only a small part of which found its way to the Exchequer, and all that could with propriety have been asked by the parties who had embarked their capitals in the new trade was a reasonable term during which they might withdraw from its prosecution.

n every civilised country timber is an article of consumption of the very first necessity, and where, as in this country, our forests do not supply it in the necessary abundance, its importation should be rendered as free as possible. If through the necessities of the government it should be found necessary to tax this which may be called one of the chief raw materials of manufacture, without which in fact scarcely any other manufacture could be carried on, it would be some consolation to know that the tax answered its legitimate purpose, and perhaps stood in the place of some other equally, if not more objectionable impost. Owing, however, to the discriminating duties in favour of the timber of our northern colonies, a sum at least equal to the amount that now finds its way under this head to the Exchequer, is lost to the public, its only use being to afford employment to a number of old and worn-out ships, which it would be more advantageous for the country to buy, and then break them up and sell their materials for fuel, than it would

be to continue the present system for even one more year.

Owing to the mode employed for calculating the duties upon planks, deals, and battens, which are taxed by the great hundred in classes, according to certain specified limits of dimension, it is not easy to estimate the actual quantity of wood brought for consumption into the country. Such an estimate was carefully made at the Custom House with reference to the importations of 1833, and from this it appears that the quantity imported that year expressed in loads amounted to 1,163,518, and the duty collected to 1,285,379*l.*, being at the average rate of 22*s.* 1¼*d.* per load. If the duty upon the whole of this quantity had been charged at the rate imposed upon European timber, the proportion brought from the colonies would no doubt have been reduced, and the supplies from the Baltic must have been proportionally increased, by which means the price in the countries of production would have been raised, and this circumstance would so far have acted in diminution of the advantage accruing to the country through the greater receipts at the Exchequer; but when an ample allowance has been made on this account, it will be found that the loss to the public at large through adherence to the present system, amounted to nearly or quite one million and a half of money in that one year. The importations in each of the three years that have since elapsed were greater than those of 1833, and the loss has consequently been still more than the sum here mentioned. It is the opinion of well-informed men, who were examined before the Select Committee of the House of Commons which sat in 1835 to consider this subject, that by a return to a more wholesome state of the trade, the price in the countries of production in

Europe would be raised only temporarily, and that so soon as time had allowed of the erection of new saw-mills and of other arrangements necessary for an enlargement of the trade, the price would again subside to its former and natural level, the supply of growing timber in those countries being equal to any demand that could possibly arise by that means.

But if these gentlemen should have taken too sanguine a view of the capabilities of the various countries to which we have hitherto and formerly resorted for a supply of timber, there are other districts to be explored into which the woodman's axe has never yet penetrated with a view to the supply of Western Europe, whence we may draw supplies for ages to come of a quality equal to everything that can be wished and adapted to purposes which it is now difficult to satisfy. From the forests of Albania as well as those of Circassia, and all the coasts of the Black Sea and the banks of the Danube, we may —if political, and still more, if fiscal obstacles are removed—draw inexhaustible supplies of the finest wood, including oak of the largest size, and at prices more advantageous than any other countries have offered, at least in modern times.

Under these circumstances, we are, without any adequate or legitimate motive, shutting against our manufacturers markets which were formerly, and would be again, of considerable importance to them, and are at the same time giving advantages to our manufacturing rivals of which they are by no means slow to avail themselves.*

* The full merits of this very important question may be learned by consulting the evidence given before the Committee of 1835, referred to in the text, and also from an article in the fourth number of the British and Foreign Quarterly Review, which is

The official value of goods imported has a nearer agreement with the actual value than has been maintained between the official and the actual values of British manufactured goods exported. The greater part of our importations consists of produce in its raw or unmanufactured state, or of products in a state of preparation which has not called for any great amount of labour, and as to which there is, consequently, but little room for economising the cost. Our exports, on the contrary, consist in great part of goods upon the preparation or manufacture of which a great amount of labour has been expended; and as the mechanical inventions of the last fifty years have introduced the most important degrees of economy into nearly every process of manufacture, the prices of such goods fixed 170 years ago have become exceedingly wide of their true value. The error which might thus have been exhibited by the Custom House returns, has been rectified by the plan of obliging the merchants at the time of shipment to declare the real value of British goods exported. The only course effectual for correcting the error in valuation in the case of foreign goods imported, would be to contrast the quantities so brought into the country at various periods. Such an account it is impossible to present: if even it were procurable, its bulk would prevent its insertion in these pages, and to render it a faithful record it would be necessary to accompany it by many voluminous explanatory statements. All that it appears desirable to give at present will be found in the following Table, which states the quantity of each of the principal articles of foreign and colonial production that was imported, re-exported,

believed to have been written by one of the most intelligent of the witnesses examined on that occasion.

and taken for home use in each of the years 1835 and 1836, together with the net revenue derived from each of the articles in those two years. To many of the articles contained in this Table it would be difficult to affix a value, on account of the great variety of qualities imported :—

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign tained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom; with the Net January 1836 and 1837.

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Annatto	lbs.	163,421	295,685
Arrow Root	,,	987,966	691,572
Ashes, Pearl and Pot	Cwts.	134,315	152,955
Barilla and Alkali	,,	125,068	70,214
Bark, for Tanning or Dyeing	,,	826,566	772,119
,, not for Tanning or Dyeing	lbs.	436,078	430,492
Borax	,,	335,224	392,874
Boracid Acid	,,	792,507	1,236,328
Brimstone	Cwts.	614,405	670,378
Bristles	lbs.	1,625,262	1,928,790
Cocoa, *viz.*—			
British Plantation	,,	439,440	1,613,273
East India	,,	...	...
Foreign Plantation	,,	1,679,316	1,174,951
All Sorts	,,	2,118,756	2,788,224
Husks and Shells	,,	273,401	425,648
Chocolate and Cocoa Paste	,,	2,906	3,928
Coffee, *viz* —			
British Plantation	,,	14,617,046	18,877,912
East India and Mauritius	,,	7,167,914	9,906,710
Foreign Plantation	,,	6,613,533	5,270,215
All Sorts	,,	28,398,493	34,054,837
Cork, Unmanufactured	Cwts.	65,275	57,946
Cotton Wool, from Foreign Countries, *viz.*—			
The United States of America	lbs.	284,455,812	289,615,692
Brazil	,,	24,986,409	27,501,272
Turkey, Syria, and Egypt	,,	5,738,966	5,426,721
Other Foreign Countries	,,	5,207,389	6,734,413
Total from Foreign Countries	,,	320,388,576	329,278 098
Cotton Wool, from British Possessions, *viz.*—			
East Indies and Mauritius, the growth of	,,	41,474,909	75,746,926
,, ,, Foreign	,,		210,961
British West Indies, the growth of	,,	1,495,517	1,312,806
,, ,, Foreign	,,	319,753	401,531
Other British Possessions	,,	24,208	8,735
Total from British Possessions	,,	43,314,387	77,680,959
Total from Foreign Countries	,,	320,388,576	329,278,098
Total Quantities	,,	363,702,963	406,959,057

and Colonial Merchandize, Imported into, Exported from, and Reproduce of Revenue thereon, during each of the Years ended 5th

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
6,267	26,671	191,455	233,987	98	106
29,837	30,270	895,406	618,968	518	341
9,987	19,137	129,961	130,176	1,267	998
5,807	1,680	146,320	97,202	9,784	4,146
2,264	3,345	801,214	784,819	25,719	25,855
237,195	56,328	123,7?3	117,687	616	541
60,539	52,3.6	285,681	344,220	653	614
36,409	11,532	825,185	1,101,405	1,474	1,945
28,950	25,220	616,772	512,856	15,535	13,223
48,486	89,729	1,542,260	1,614,698	22,356	23,467
81,233	46,854	1,083,730	1,128,752		
..	..	..	..		
2,399,900	285,733	.. 440	.. 1,416		
2,481,133	332,687	1,084,170	1,130,168	10,692	11,165
1,374	16,800	368,222	364,144		
640	1,798	2,037	2,160		
200,258	108,493	17,696,129	17,532,731	..	..
2,616,881	3,62,2895	5,596,791	7,412,725	..	..
10,529,398	6,956,370	2,126	2,234	..	..
13,346,537	10,681,758	23,295,046	24,947,690	652,124	691,616
246	92	59,788	56,896	23,942	22,775
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
32,779,734	31,739,763	326,407,692	363,684,232	399,262	430,006

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign and tained for Consumption in, the

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Cotton Manufactures, *viz.*—			
Piece Goods of India	Pieces	306,086	384,943
Manufactures, at Value	Value	71,796	114,201
Yarn	lbs.	117,826	199,109
Dyeing Stuffs, *viz.*—			
Cochineal	,,	418,320	673,094
Fustic	Tons	9,931	4,917
Gum Arabic	Cwts.	13,981	24,411
,, Senegal	,,	4,400	16,743
,, Animi and Copal	lbs.	551,166	682,155
,, Tragacanth	,,	34,487	100,386
Indigo	,,	4,168,395	7,710,544
Lac Dye	,,	528,615	663,675
Logwood	Tons	16,744	12,881
Madder	Cwts.	94,102	108,906
Madder Roots	,,	66,323	85,251
Nicaragua Wood	Tons.	6,242	6,480
Safflower	Cwts.	6,633	8,846
Shumac	,,	177,832	156,606
Smalts	lbs.	118,646	95,920
Valonia	Cwts.	182,082	72,836
Yellow Berries	,,	5,050	3,123
Zaffres	lbs.	322,562	503,680
Elephants' Teeth	Cwts.	5,205	6,524
Flax and Tow, or Codilla of Hemp and Flax	,,	740,814	1,529,116
Fruits, *viz.*—			
Apples, not Dried	Bushels	11,574	14,859
Almonds	Cwts.	16,817	17,370
Chesnuts	Bushels	18,973	14,359
Currants	Cwts.	176,063	196,561
Figs	,,	18,773	12,140
Lemons and Oranges	Chests or Boxes	324,438	265,864
Grapes	Value	16,765	19,635
Plums, Dried or Preserved	Cwts.	465	303
,, French, and Prunelloes	,,	4,557	4,796
Prunes	,,	12,009	10,252
Raisins	,,	169,366	182,286
Small Nuts	Bushels	126,525	143,851
Walnuts	,,	27,665	13,138
Furs, Undressed, *viz.*—			
Bear	Number	15,041	7,625
Beaver	,,	88,400	57,345
Cat and Lynx	,,	25,364	59,296
Coney	,,	352,430	674,878
Ermine	,,	183,978	304,957
Fitch	,,	47,586	121,280
Fox	,,	80,271	56,057
Marten	,,	159,954	196,475
Mink	,,	115,501	113,549
Musquash	,,	1,171,659	380,201

Colonial Merchandize Imported into, Exported from, and Re-
United Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
478,027	377,826	} 50,133	67,577	} 6,351	8,279
29,392	52,091				
87,348	126,360	76,607	52,339		
352,023	435,534	162,596	167,316	4,097	4,175
1,142	578	8,905	5,807	1,817	1,126
4,545	809	15,309	18,160	4,565	5,467
770	635	10,595	11,188	3,175	3,317
175,787	333,860	191,364	247,246	535	664
28,592	7,483	30,430	43,511	94	117
4,074,598	3,691,951	2,590,606	2,840,398	33,378	36,356
206,169	200,975	594,483	620,248	1,609	1,717
3,697	4,385	14,727	12,361	3,053	2,473
822	364	94,100	105,445	9,565	10,712
5	3	67,851	84,101	1,697	2,114
1,811	879	3,830	3,160	992	818
3,028	2,732	2,930	2,873	155	150
407	2,523	176,556	154,062	447	392
37,954	49,546	96,649	79,531	1,614	1,332
41	63	169,513	80,511	8,413	3,927
202	120	6,001	3,199	607	326
336	224	336,824	496,816	151	221
1,726	1,283	3,698	4,584	3,859	2,763
12,255	16,789	728,143	1,511,428	3,127	6,441
6	12	11,477	14,747	2,255	2,883
8,706	8,814	7,170	8,061	7,703	8,101
1,541	..	15,387	14,650	1,553	1,472
22,199	5,738	193,569	175,774	214,537	194,821
3,639	931	20,662	13,209	15,411	9,927
1,306	1,455	302,145	249,651	63,628	52,226
5	38	16,760	19,597	866	985
2	33	283	269	389	369
1,174	335	4,677	4,422	4,697	4,453
1,214	1,636	12,090	7,265	4,235	2,575
29,808	36,496	160,844	156,194	120,520	117,095
1,126	1,895	119,253	160,933	11,907	15,703
50	233	28,529	14,539	2,843	1,515
11,414	11,334	1,348	2,322	190	390
219	2,115	97,542	87,473	1,673	1,598
11,947	3,246	21,427	58,937	273	439
10,164	10,762	350,003	665,991	183	336
2,400	868	156,762	284,488	1,965	3,556
6,260	..	50,390	122,741	420	1,023
59,577	56,047	7,150	18,977	197	542
17,961	17,658	134,370	197,804	2,625	4,161
69,396	60,151	60,836	62,467	849	902
221,490	204,749	570,114	784,379	290	395

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign and for consumption in, the United

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Nutria	Number	537,600	1,970,375
Otter	„	18,374	15,820
Racoon	„	297,787	234,423
Squirrel	„	1,373,013	2,947,402
Hardwoods, *viz.*—			
Boxwood	Tons	997	1,366
Cedar, under 8 inches square	„	2,653	3,053
Mahogany	„	19,087	26,710
Rosewood	„	2,473	1,927
Hats or Bonnets, Platting, &c., *viz.*—			
Hats or Bonnets of Bast, Cane, Chip, or Horse-hair	Number	13,647	19,218
„ Straw	„	7,472	14,042
Platting of Bast, Cane, Chip, or Horse-hair	lbs.	494	746
„ Straw	„	27,483	42,890
Straw or Grass for Platting	Cwts.	3,201	4,503
Hemp, undressed	„	687,559	586,032
Hides untanned, *viz.*—			
Buffalo, Bull, Cow, Ox, or Horse	„	350,697	352,061
Hides, or Pieces of Hides, unenumerated	Value	127	303
Hides, Tanned, *viz.*—			
Buffalo, Bull, Cow, Ox, or Horse	lbs.	78,676	70,410
Muscovy, or Russia	Number	5,443	16,248 & 5lbs. in pieces.
Hides, or Pieces of Hides, unenumerated	Value	..	15
Horns, Horn Tips, and Pieces of Horns	Cwts.	31,264	30,234
Jalap	lbs.	73,908	46,875
Iron, Bar	Tons	19,750	25,034
Isinglass	Cwts.	1,811	1,949
Lead, Pig	Tons	1,276	1,893
Leather, Gloves	Pairs	1,260,623	1,490,999
Linen, *viz.*—			
Cambrics, and Bordered Hankerchiefs	Pieces	45,725	35,030
Lawns, not French	Sqr. Yds.	4,045	1,366
Damasks, and Damask Diaper	„	11,377	4,880
Drillings, Ticks, and Twilled Linens	„	970	2,580
Sail Cloth	„	9,534	7,220
„	Pieces	..	45
Sails	Value	421	811
Plain Linen and Diaper	Sqr. Yds.	144,853	86,840
„ „	Ells	522,331	692,033
„ „	Pieces	56,293	44,747
Lawns, not French, Plain Linen, &c., Diaper, and manufactures of Linen, unenumerated	Value	12,802	15,036
Linen Yarn	Cwts.	12,305	5,264
Liquorice Juice	„	6,414	7,754

Colonial Merchandize, Imported into, Exported from, and Retained Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
23,143	28,588	451,867	1,328,017	233	669
24,444	18,766	594	952	54	67
260,005	273,969	..	1,525	1	13
87,220	1,089	1,602,732	2,235,725	9,218	12,856
42	15	790	1,282	3,946	3,031
112	254	1,710	2,793	1,302	1,653
997	1,053	18,171	24,510	44,267	54,516
89	193	1,416	1,773	14,163	14,920
•5,532	7,054	10,068	12,648	841	1,023
13,117	16,172	2,938	3,437	1,041	1,009
324	523	150	318	150	318
7,656	11,846	31,311	29,681	26,512	24,558
136	70	3,024	4,483	13	19
56,951	38,105	643,122	567,892	2,837	2,482
79,380	37,795	294,184	330,214	43,167	45,769
..	5	127	223	23	60
28,204	32,305	81,682	63,010	1,041	794
..	10,231	4,892	4,458 & 5lbs. in pieces.	1,223	1,115
..	..	..	15	..	5
12,979	9,373	27,654	24,986	3,253	1,647
8,557	8,493	54,366	46,352	1,360	1,159
2,635	4,762	17,572	18,921	26,379	28,438
58	26	1,814	1,735	4,290	4,125
1,268	913	2	7	5	14
38,365	31,405	1,291,265	1,459,363	24,175	27,507
355	435	45,213	34,589		
3,867	..	178	1,366		
5,515	330	6,374	4,198		
..	301	652	2,596		
3,414	15,012	211	..		
..	..	..	..		
6	..	415	811	19,067	17,650
145,264	79,691	703	417		
14,110	84,678	..	..		
63,310	48,297	..	..		
1,087	2,394	15,658	18,858		
23	..	12,282	4,858	614	243
167	515	7,319	7,643	27,327	28,531

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign and for Consumption in, the United

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Molasses	Cwts.	526,321	528,306
Oil, Castor	lbs.	1,109,307	981,585
„ Olive	Gallons	606,166	2,682,016
„ Cocoa Nut	Cwts.	19,838	26,058
„ Palm	„	260,151	277,017
„ Train, Spermaceti, and Blubber	Tuns	24,197	19,489
Opium	lbs.	85,481	130,794
Provisions, *viz.*—			
Bacon and Hams	Cwts.	3,554	5,879
Beef, Salted	„	4,095	10,072
Butter	„	146,784	240,738
Cheese	„	140,852	211,169
Eggs	Number	59,964,496	69,082,480
Fish, Anchovies	lbs.	127,038	157,490
Eels	ShipLds.	69	71
Oysters	Bushels	5,338	..
Of Newfoundland and British America	Cwts.	68,337	85,165
Pork, Salted	„	3,507	9,462
Quicksilver	lbs.	2,066,907	1,951,202
Rags and other Materials for making Paper	Tons	9,903	11,281
Rhubarb	lbs.	81,100	122,142
Rice, Cleaned, from the East Indies and British Possessions in Africa and America	Cwts.	247,157	182,314
Rice, Cleaned, from Foreign Countries in Europe, Africa, and America	„	2,381	4,482
Rice, in the Husk, from the East Indies and British Possessions in Africa and America	Bushels	42,372	15,110
Rice, in Husk, from Foreign Countries in Europe, Africa, and America	„	259,949	243,617
Sago	Cwts.	19,255	24,951
Saltpetre and Cubic Nitre	„	264,338	279,902
Seeds, *viz.*—			
Caraway	„	643	408
Clover	„	86,974	95,449
Flax, and Linseed	Bushels	2,206,748	3,339,215
Onion	lbs.	28,543	27,319
Rape	Bushels	754,834	577,554
Tares	„	107,361	134,206
Silk, Raw, *viz.*—			
From India	lbs.	961,215	1,420,961
Cape of Good Hope	„	..	..
China	„	737,489	1,277,027
Turkey, Syria, and Egypt	„	673,666	677,839
Italy	„	245,303	180,749
France	„	915,265	816,581
Other Countries	„	204,542	79,924
Total of Raw Silk	„	3,737,480	4,453,081

Colonial Merchandize, Imported into, Exported from, and Retained Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
4,896	1,600	622,479	657,082	279,796	295,645
61,296	68,515	670,205	809,559	776	730
283,734	150,561	554,196	1,844,622	9,434	46,514
2,238	3,158	14,015	26,062	894	1,638
30,915	34,379	242,733	234,357	15,230	14,678
8,035	1,365	16,114	18,722	1,204	1,292
74,126	70,824	31,181	38,943	6,249	4,229
2,366	3,882	1,433	1,564	1,992	2,236
1,738	4,969	1,222	2,730	733	1,638
2,789	1,646	143,149	238,411	143,160	238,306
5,670	7,157	134 643	201,810	70,520	105,087
3,600	6,240	59,960,896	69,076,240	20,846	23,991
2,468	1,937	129,216	138,592	1,083	1,152
..	..	69	71	1,082	1,113
..	..	5,388	..	400	..
5,360	9,916	62,752	76,474	..	..
3,321	8,972	29	274	17	164
1,399,236	1,136,821	224,257	284,558	936	1,195
350	18	10,235	11,268	2,592	2,822
88,182	75,164	44,522	44,468	2,220	2,236
Foreign 209,168	Cleaned. 158,547				
Cleaned in the U. Kingdm. 35,175	22,038	98,227	73,708		
1,123	920	177,930	205,250	22,987	27,200
4,320	9,329	11,257	17,193	586	871
73,379	38,444	204,580	231,134	5,438	6,045
578	403	2,100	459	3,149	706
1,161	1,018	68,447	78,538	68,125	78,101
21,078	1,371	2,159,498	3,179,097	13 555	19,905
5,260	2,032	25,687	30,189	1,903	2,277
3,084	16,212	690,716	558,712	4,317	3,505
..	425	81,605	152,373	4,993	8,890
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
115,580	113,600	4,027,149	4,239,254	17,245	18,072

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign and for Consumption in, the United

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Silk, Waste, Knubs, and Husks, *viz.*—			
From India	lbs.	148,474	32,490
China	,,	..	224
Italy	,,	275,968	286,544
France	,,	911,482	1,202,030
Other Countries	,,	86,040	87,001
Total of Waste, Knubs, and Husks	,,	1,421,964	1,608,289
Silk, Thrown, *viz.*—			
From Italy	,,	1,169	12,640
France	,,	178,242	345,316
Other Countries	,,	36,472	39,304
Total of Thrown Silk	,,	215,883	396,660
Silk Manufactured Goods, *viz.*—			
Manufactures of Europe,—			
Silk or Satin, & Silk or Satin Ribbons	,,	99,566	137,052
Gauze, and Gauze Ribbons	,,	35,109	15,150
,, Tissue Foulards	,,	25,775	15,399
Crape	,,	3,664	3,251
Velvet, and Velvet Ribbons	,,	8,773	16,506
Ribbons Embossed or Figured with Velvet	,,	109	552
Fancy Silk, Net or Tricot	,,	2,156	3,450
Silk mixed with Metal	,,	304	322
Total entered by Weight	,,	175,455	191,682
Plain Silk, Lace or Net, called Tulle	Sq. Yds.	10,704	12,028
Millinery—			
Turbans or Caps	Number	509	433
Hats or Bonnets	,,	696	762
Dresses	,,	171	203
Entered at Value	,,	46	6
Manufactures of Silk, or of Silk and other Materials, not particularly enumerated	Value	85,877	93,512
Manufactures of India, *viz.*—			
Bandannoes, Romals, and Silk Handkerchiefs	Pieces	388,413	351,066
Silks, and Crape in Pieces	,,	2,982	3,943
Crape Shawls, Scarfs, and Handkerchiefs	Number	7,448	8,119
Skins, *viz.*—			
Calf and Kid, Untanned	Cwts.	51,274	48,330
,, Tanned, Tawed, Cur. or Dressed	lbs.	23,149	37,803

Colonial Merchandize, Imported into, Exported from, and Retained Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..
4,133	87,645	1,379,697	1,524,968	616	712
Foreign	Thrown.	..	..		
•16,769	24,061	..	..		
British	Thrown.			Excess of	Drawback
Nil.	Nil.	..	..	20,698	4,650
16,769	24,061	251,370	294,201		
12,562	7,595	89,140	127,749		
3,199	735	32,808	14,470		
1	27	25,630	15,397		
513	121	3,072	3,130		
1,227	992	7,720	15,117		
..	12	109	540		
2	61	2,155	3,390		
75	30	206	285		
17,579	9,573	160,840	180,078	168,372	180,074
600	2,000	10,104	10,028		
178	108	367	336		
257	254	422	478		
157	57	106	143		
..	..	46	6		
6,553	7,082	79,324	86,430		
280,910	220,785	162,827	130,114		
5,059	4,615	1,932	1,314	28,644	25,911
7,516	4,587	2,740	3,648		
1,215	255	50,471	49,969	10,336	10,212
614	9,654	11,560	38,540	614	1,563

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign and for Consumption in, the United

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Skins (*continued*)			
Deer, Undressed	Number	288,687	315,416
Goat ,,	,,	507,370	413,756
Kid, in the Hair	,,	253,289	196,325
,, Dressed	,,	791,462	590,619
Lamb, Undressed	,,	2,255,273	2,784,841
,, Tanned, Tawed, or Dressed	,,	97,325	44,928
Seal, Undressed	,,	339,683	147,539
Sheep ,,	,,	403,009	454,756
Spelter	Cwts.	141,969	178,628
Spices, *viz.* —			
Cassia Lignea	lbs.	1,966,303	837,413
Cinnamon	,,	445,367	616,747
Cloves	,,	124,924	25,885
Ginger	Cwts.	12,955	26,217
Mace	lbs.	20,641	84,255
Nutmegs	,,	435,047	335,456
Pepper	,,	3,343,277	7,724,932
Pimento	,,	2,536,353	3,269,238
Spirits, *viz.*—			
Rum	Gallons	5,540,170	4,993,942
Brandy	,,	2,105,755	2,125,167
Geneva	,,	277,141	367,426
Foreign and Colonial of other sorts	,,	57,651	144,872
,, ,, mixed in Bond	,,	..	..
Sugar, *viz.*—			
West India of British Possessions	Cwts.	3,523,948	3,600,517
East India and Mauritius	,,	771,883	720,997
Foreign	,,	152,436	327,647
Tallow	,,	1,043,084	1,186,364
Tar	Lasts	11,977	9,798
Tea	lbs.	44,360,550	49,307,701
Timber, *viz.*—			
Battens and Batten Ends	Gt.Hhds.	13,154	17,247
Deals and Deal Ends	,,	61,731	69,318
Masts, 6 ins. and under 8 ins. in diamr.	Number	10,932	8,414
,, 8 ,, 12 ,,	,,	4,245	3,381
,, 12 ins. and upwards	Loads	3,241	2,649
Oak Planks	,,	347	3,046
Staves	Gt.Hhds.	108,507	93,695
Fir, 8 ins. square and upwards	Loads	626,529	622,680
Oak	,,	26,346	25,684
Unenumerated	,,	41,375	39,422
Wainscot Logs	,,	3,188	4,212
Tin	Cwts.	19,705	23,236
Tobacco, *viz.*—			
Unmanufactured	lbs.	25,523,611	32,232,907
Manufactured, or Cigars	,,	294,601	168,668
Snuff	,,	753	13,580

Colonial Merchandize, Imported into, Exported from, and Retained Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
184,254	155,548	95,617	171,431	454	712
153,122	56,963	384,452	383,544	882	826
85,280	28,327	166,090	153,210	42	29
900	150	790,538	590,469	3,950	2,960
3,892	15,941	2,287,046	2,692,724	382	452
9,550	9,451	84,804	44,388	418	223
22,192	28,725	318,294	113,744	220	486
20,311	8,634	442,091	435,459	1,859	1,800
69,273	100,043	52,604	47,406	6,526	5,948
1,432,035	633,083	98,313	89,396	2,339	2,242
413,138	421,497	16,604	17,038	432	428
301,554	126,323	93,246	117,159	9,321	5,315
3,536	5,345	10,514	9,676	5,887	5,452
17,210	25,322	18,673	22,531	3,288	3,265
194,997	180,338	129,880	115,768	17,093	15,029
1,246,482	4,151,569	2,359,573	2,794,491	117,995	99,134
2,469,485	2,337,982	344,458	400,914	7,178	6,359
1,678,374	1,279,845	3,416,966	3,324,749	1,537,694	1,496,156
1,117,253	822,919	1,314,943	1,257,853	1,476,511	1,413,774
280,768	331,301	19,648	19,981	22,157	22,497
25,779	94,491	14,149	14,437	10,997	11,484
29,732	135,668	..	..	..	..
Raw371,230	Raw278,098				
..	..	3,856,562	3,488,399	4,667,900	4,184,165
Refined Actual Weight.					
349,371	248,644				
31,243	18,709	1,005,276	1,314,085	158,876	207,789
645	742	11,519	9,205	8,693	7,063
2,158,029	4,269,863	36,574,004	49,142,236	3,832,427	4,674,535
31	80	13,386	15,677	127,378	152,596
748	1,022	63,941	68,300	582,485	647,581
472	345	9,703	9,247	2,950	2,780
200	268	3,829	3,291	2,482	2,119
6	35	3,324	3,200	2,550	3,443
2	..	1,799	2,871	7,144	11,490
3,596	2,124	99,752	90,811	45,021	57,334
363	460	614,330	612,865	516,143	545,074
23	15	26,288	26,062	33,098	31,318
140	72	41,642	39,314	10,595	10,043
..	..	3,182	3,988	8,659	10,954
23,796	17,231	4	..	18	Nil.
13,218,897	12,319,405	21,803,775	22,150,785		
205,095	432,661	141,623	158,182	3,334,234	3,397,102
556	3,496	191	508		

An Account of the Quantities of the under-mentioned Foreign and for Consumption in, the United

DESCRIPTION.		Quantities Imported.	
		1835.	1836.
Tobacco (*continued*)			
British Manufactured, and Cigars	lbs.	..	..
,, Snuff	,,	..	..
Turpentine, common	Cwts.	294,104	370,981
Wax, Bees', *viz.*—			
Unbleached	,,	7,600	7,808
Bleached	,,	454	191
Whale Fins	,,	7,337	5,929
Wine, *viz.*—			
Cape	Gallons	587,748	580,275
French	,,	370,446	533,241
Portugal	,,	4,269,890	4,088,235
Madeira	,,	204,825	233,979
Spanish	,,	2,732,028	3,164,244
Other Sorts	,,	874,614	805,109
Additional Duty on Wine in Dealers' Stocks	,,	..	..
All Sorts of Wine	,,	9,039,551	9,406,083
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	lbs.	42,174,532	64,239,977
Woollen Manufactures, Foreign, *viz.*—			
Cloths for Exportation	Pieces	246	1,119
Manufactures, Entered at Value	£	99,951	139,796
Worsted Yarn	lbs.	12,342	23,960

Colonial Merchandize, Imported into, Exported from, and Retained Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

Quantities Exported.		Quantities Retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.	1835.	1836.
				£.	£.
55,233	55,151	..	..	..	..
12,257	13,554	..	..	..	..
72	209	300,831	340,123	66,043	73,824
2,978	2,423	4,449	4,673	3,053	2,906
420	355	243	121		
656	838	6,368	5,204	330	265
3,184	10,876	522,941	541,511	71,935	74,435
113,236	99,112	271,661	352,063	74,080	96,534
475,084	381,026	2,780,024	2,878,359		
179,735	152,368	139,422	133,673	1,545,493	1,622,994
692,730	645,822	2,230,187	2,388,413		
409,612	385,320	476,107	515,193		
..	..	..	..	14	..
1,873,581	1,674,524	6,420,342	6,809,212	1,691,522	1,793,963
4,101,700	613,707	41,718,514	60,366,415	137,136	189,524
246	1,119	..	..	..	..
2,286	11,721	97,665	128,075	14,767	19,346
2,049	3,788	12,480	20,256	312	546

The relative importance of the foreign trade, prosecuted from the different ports of Great Britain and Ireland, may be gathered from the subjoined account of the Customs' duty collected in each. To particularise the quantity of every article brought into each of the 109 ports, would, in itself, fill a volume of no ordinary bulk:—

An Account of the Gross and Net Amount of Customs' Duty Received at each Port in the United Kingdom, during the Year ending 5th January, 1837, compared with similar Receipts during the preceding Year.

PORT.	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.
			Exhibiting Produce, after deducting Repayment of Trade Vouchers, Office Expenses, & Incidental Charges.	
ENGLAND.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
London.....	11,773,616 13 6	12,156,279 14 6	10,601,600 5 8	11,088,207 8 6
Aberystwith	2,006 10 9	1,637 18 3	1,035 16 9	633 11 0
Aldbro'.....	61 10 8	155 15 6	..	..
Arundel	2,706 10 2	2,405 6 2	..	..
Barnstaple..	13,663 16 8	12,005 18 7	11,734 4 3	10,125 10 8
Beaumaris..	3,378 8 1	3,230 16 5	..	..
Berwick	7,189 11 5	7,851 6 8	..	..
Bideford	4,192 1 4	3,663 19 11	1,281 18 5	960 15 5
Blackney & Clay	1,504 9 2	1,225 2 6	..	..
Boston	10,325 3 1	10,535 6 2	6,078 5 4	6,171 19 7
Bridgwater .	6,734 9 6	8,389 3 9	5,080 16 6	6,627 14 9
Bridlington .	22 10 2	51 19 1	..	..
Bridport	5,822 9 0	5,821 9 9	2,606 3 3	2,617 9 2
Bristol.....	1,177,687 3 7	1,112,812 9 0	1,120,808 1 4	1,073,099 11 11
Cardiff	5,608 16 9	7,650 8 11	4,086 1 5	5,927 10 7
Cardigan ...	1,119 8 0	869 17 6	..	..
Carlisle	28,302 4 5	31,003 15 10	27,111 4 8	29,771 0 8
Chepstow ...	1,195 6 6	517 6 9	692 11 9	6 9 0
Chester	28,144 8 10	68,334 9 7	26,900 0 7	67,008 3 0
Chichester ..	909 1 3	1,031 15 1	..	..
Colchester ..	15,548 12 6	16,857 3 7	10,997 13 0	12,335 1 5
Cowes.....	2,110 17 2	2,151 17 7	..	..
Dartmouth .	3,509 7 1	3,135 12 3	..	..
Deal	76 3 8	150 19 8	..	..
Dover	52,714 9 10	47,437 11 7	24,082 1 7	18,798 2 11
Exeter	72,329 12 10	79,897 8 2	61,976 3 6	69,569 18 9
Falmouth ...	19,157 19 11	23,524 3 0	6,271 7 2	11,325 18 10
Faversham .	4,640 13 5	3,675 9 5	..	..
Fowey	15,997 8 3	25,549 2 10	49 18 3	5,017 8 0
Gloucester ..	160,484 4 9	166,187 1 2	155,158 12 3	160,093 11 3
Goole	58,868 15 1	60,317 8 2	57,306 5 0	58,633 12 9
Grimsby	17,416 0 6	11,633 2 3	11,822 7 2	5,940 15 9
Gweek	15,594 12 0	25,980 16 6	3,724 2 9	7,827 11 3
Harwich ...	468 3 5	1,078 1 2	..	..
Hull	720,870 14 2	801,628 12 10	689,573 18 6	768,448 11 7
Ilfracombe .	234 0 3	104 7 5	..	..
Ipswich	36,789 5 2	37,881 17 6	34,979 6 7	35,936 16 10
Lancaster...	46,618 19 3	42,313 17 3	42,728 15 5	38,256 16 1
Llanelly	2,134 6 1	1,834 7 2	939 16 11	407 17 10
Liverpool...	4,272,847 6 6	4,450,426 3 6	4,044,894 18 8	4,224,798 6 2
Lyme	1,665 17 0	1,467 19 10	..	..

An Account of the Gross and Net Amount of Customs' Duty Received at each Port in the United Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

PORT.	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836. Exhibiting Produce, after deducting Repayment of Trade Vouchers, Office Expenses, & Incidental Charges.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.
ENGLAND, (*continued*).	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Lynn.....	42,625 14 3	52,470 16 10	38,582 6 2	48,483 16 2
Maldon.....	3,262 13 7	5,152 4 11	..	..
Milford	11,989 18 5	4,073 4 2	777 6 1	..
Newcastle ..	289,508 0 2	307,274 19 3	275,369 9 4	293,087 7 7
Newhaven ..	14,599 9 1	13,250 13 9	5,115 19 5	3,707 0 5
Newport ...	6,709 2 1	11,183 4 2	5,731 8 11	10,270 8 9
Padstow	1,897 10 8	1,410 5 5	..	..
Penzance ...	18,263 7 3	30,558 11 11	2,184 9 5	8,291 0 8
Plymouth...	93,462 3 11	103,423 7 4	71,147 16 11	78,066 8 8
Poole	9,681 12 10	12,000 17 11	..	1,843 9 2
Portsmouth .	51,887 17 3	46,873 1 2	30,082 5 6	27,313 6 11
Ramsgate ..	8,242 2 4	10,262 17 1	..	..
Rochester ..	19,621 15 9	17,096 13 11	1,460 12 6	..
Rye	8,691 18 0	8,564 15 4	..	..
St. Ives	2,688 11 3	4,521 11 5	..	..
Scarboro'...	1,188 4 9	2,139 8 10	..	..
Scilly	153 5 2	82 4 8	..	..
Shoreham ..	25,376 10 8	22,920 10 9	13,233 2 2	11,290 9 4
Southampton	49,806 18 8	49,139 17 1	31,676 11 4	30,126 9 7
Southwold ..	0 13 4	22 7 5	..	..
Stockton ...	51,487 12 8	54,497 17 4	46,761 11 6	49,765 8 8
Sunderland .	62,626 16 6	78,126 15 8	56,814 17 10	71,637 3 9
Swansea ...	3,791 2 7	3,448 13 10	..	..
Truro	37,820 3 5	48,552 13 7	15,152 12 11	18,381 14 2
Wells	727 6 6	252 13 10	..	..
Weymouth .	13,179 4 2	13,120 0 8	..	..
Whitby.....	1,371 14 7	1,106 11 7	..	..
Whitehaven.	96,079 14 3	88,291 9 11	91,583 2 3	83,350 9 6
Wisbeach ..	7,090 19 9	8,917 15 9	5,982 13 4	7,624 11 0
Woodbridge.	2,785 11 11	2,001 9 10	549 12 11	..
Yarmouth ..	56,814 7 11	63,783 7 6	43,602 10 11	50,713 15 4
Douglas ...	27,279 3 11	24,429 6 6	18,887 4 11	15,564 1 8
SCOTLAND.				
Aberdeen...	53,835 0 6	58,673 9 4	45,134 2 2	50,084 2 7
Air	1,183 8 2	1,518 2 8	184 14 10	385 1 8
Banff	1,112 5 3	870 15 9	..	..
Borrowstoness	3,789 11 6	3,232 11 1	1,773 9 10	1,534 4 6
Campbeltown	381 1 0	389 17 11	..	..
Dumfries...	5,261 12 6	4,218 5 2	741 19 1	616 10 4
Dundee	45,609 5 4	70,982 5 3	39,125 4 10	63,954 9 11
Glasgow....	314,701 10 8	289,702 2 10	303,317 0 5	375,395 18 0
Grangemouth....	21,325 10 7	25,728 14 1	18,614 5 1	23,050 13 9
Greenock ..	448,661 11 0	374,467 14 0	316,575 4 8	285,206 0 1
Inverness ..	576 4 0	1,095 17 0	..	..
Irvine	2,441 14 11	2,585 14 2	649 0 1	725 2 3

An Account of the Gross and Net Amount of Customs' Duty Received at each Port in the United Kingdom, &c.—(*continued*).

PORT.	Gross Receipts. Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.
			Exhibiting Produce, after deducting Repayment of Trade Vouchers, Office Expenses, & Incidental Charges.	
SCOTLAND, (*continued*).	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Kirkaldy ...	5,924 12 10	7,561 12 4	1,727 17 7	3,289 8 11
Kirkwall ...	369 12 0	631 19 1	..	..
Leith	489,851 16 6	514,974 3 5	373,954 6 11	393,145 6 2
Lerwick ...	1,272 17 10	652 19 11	324 8 4	..
Montrose...	6,827 3 2	24,575 9 2	1,672 7 8	19,294 1 11
Port Glasgow	125,162 1 4	104,292 6 6	112,696 14 5	90,215 17 5
Stornoway .	555 6 6	167 9 1	..	..
Stranraer...	292 11 2	190 2 9	..	..
Wick.....	1,676 0 10	957 16 1	..	..
IRELAND.				
Baltimore ..	2,150 16 7	1,408 5 0	..	..
Belfast	357,974 12 1	366,718 5 4	326,179 9 10	333,414 8 0
Coleraine...	3,271 4 1	4,689 17 3	..	..
Cork	217,788 13 1	230,904 2 9	185,866 18 2	196,854 11 10
Drogheda...	9,476 19 3	13,382 13 3	5,829 17 4	9,680 0 7
Dublin	918,801 16 0	898,630 5 1	844,559 3 9	832,355 7 2
Dundalk ...	3,618 4 10	4,514 5 10	..	161 6 11
Galway.....	31,133 2 5	31,769 2 5	20,968 14 9	21,554 15 10
Limerick ...	142,843 10 0	146,222 17 9	122,435 8 11	126,290 15 1
Londonderry	100,088 1 9	99,652 3 7	85,607 5 10	85,930 18 0
Newry	54,081 3 1	58,806 2 6	39,646 0 4	43,867 14 6
Sligo	33,703 4 5	35,863 18 2	16,465 0 1	19,385 3 8
Waterford ..	135,844 12 4	137,126 7 9	123,861 15 6	124,706 13 4
Westport ...	452 18 3	577 8 4	..	..
Wexford....	4,920 13 10	6,306 10 9	..	..

An Account of the Gross and Net Amount of Customs' Duty in the United Kingdom Received during the Year ending 5th January, 1837, compared with similar Receipts during the preceding year.

	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Gross Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1836.	Net Receipt, Year ending 5th Jan., 1837.
			Exhibiting Produce, after deducting Repayment of Trade Vouchers, Office Expenses, & Incidental Charges.	
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
England ...	19,614,979 8 9	20,327,657 11 9	17,579,960 3 3	18,390,550 19 5
Scotland....	1,529,810 17 7	1,587,489 7 7	1,192,299 13 0	1,288,170 4 1
Ireland.....	2,016,149 12 0	2,036,572 5 9	1,743,642 16 8	1,770,020 6 3
Totals....	23,160,939 18 4	23,951,719 5 1	20,522,895 12 11	21,448,741 9 9

The opening of the present century found this country involved in war, but at the end of 1801 the peace of Amiens was signed, and it will be seen (Table, page 98) that the value of British goods exported in 1802 exceeded, by more than 5,000,000, or 13 per cent., the value exported in 1801. The recurrence of war in 1803 put an end to this improvement and brought our exports below the amount of 1801. We have not the means of analysing our foreign commerce in any year earlier than 1805, but in that and the two following years it will be remarked that very nearly one-third of our foreign export trade was carried on with the United States of America. Under the then existing circumstances of the country, with the ports of the Continent shut against us as completely as the power of Napoleon enabled him to accomplish that object, this trade was of peculiar importance to us, not only because it gave employment to our manufacturing population, but also because it provided us with the means of meeting the foreign expenditure of the government occasioned by the operations of the war. The merchants of the United States were at that time accustomed to sell their produce in the continental markets to a much greater amount than their purchases in those markets; while, in their dealing with this country, the practice was directly the reverse, and they had every year a large balance to pay to this country. The means of liquidating this balance were furnished by the excess of their continental sales, the amount of which was paid to the agents of the English government for bills upon the treasury, which came as a remittance to our exporting merchants, and thus were funds placed at the disposal of our armies, and provided for the payment of subsidies, which must otherwise have drained this country of every guinea which it possessed. At the end of 1806, Na-

poleon aimed an additional and severe blow at this country by means of his famous Berlin decree, whereby he declared all the ports of Great Britain in a state of blockade, and forbade all trading with us or in the articles of our produce and manufactures, declaring such to be subject to seizure and condemnation wherever they were found, and forbidding the importation into the countries under his control, which then included nearly all continental Europe, of any goods of such kinds as were included among the home or colonial productions of this country, unless they should be accompanied by certificates showing their origin to have been other than British. The consequent measures of retaliation adopted by the English government, were so far from averting the evil consequences of the Berlin decree, that they proved directly and immediately injurious to our trade, in a greater degree than all the efforts of the enemy would probably have succeeded in accomplishing. Our Orders in Council, issued in the course of 1807, served indeed only to give efficacy to the paper blockade of Napoleon, against which the whole trading community of the world would have been arrayed but for the notable expedient of the English Government. By those Orders in Council it was declared, as the only condition upon which neutrals might trade with countries not at peace with Great Britain, that the vessels in which that trade was carried on should touch at some port in this country, there to pay such amount of customs' duties as should be imposed by the British Government, and any vessel found to have on board the certificate of origin required by the French Government was declared lawful prize. In answer to these Orders in Council, Napoleon issued his decree from Milan, dated 27th December, 1807, in which it was declared that any ship that should have paid any

tax to the British government, or that had submitted to be searched by any British authorities, was thereby *denationalised*, and became good and lawful prize; and in order to give full effect to this decree, it was provided that any person on board a foreign vessel arriving at a port in France, who should notify to the authorities the fact of such vessel having visited an English port, or having submitted to be searched, should be entitled to receive one-third of the net value realised from the sale of the vessel and cargo. Further to circumvent the designs of the French government, a system of providing neutral vessels with forged papers, by means of which they might elude the vigilance of the French authorities, was encouraged by the English government; and thus in spite of all the hazard attending it, a considerable amount of trade was carried on in vessels bearing the flags of Pappenburg, Oldenburg, and other petty continental powers. Such an expedient was clearly not one which the Government of the United States of America could adopt for the prosecution of trade with Europe; and finding that the American flag was thus effectually excluded from the ports of the Continent, that government interdicted altogether the trade of its subjects with either of the belligerents, first by blockading her own ports, and next, by a law forbidding intercourse with the belligerents, while it allowed of trade with other parts of the world, and provided for the renewal of trading relations with either of the interdicted nations which should rescind its obnoxious regulations. The return to wisdom in this respect was first evinced by France, and war was declared against this country by the United States.

It will be clear from the preceding recital, that the great advantages which we had derived from our trade with America, as already described, must have ceased

when the blockade of their ports was enforced; and accordingly we find that the amount of our exports became altogether inadequate to meet our public expenditure abroad, the foreign exchanges turned ruinously against this country, and the drain of the precious metals was such that the price of gold rose from 80*s.* per. oz., at which price it had been stationary, during the six preceding years, to 91*s.* per oz. in 1809, to 97*s.* 6*d.* in 1811, to 105*s.* in 1812, and to 110*s.* in 1813: these prices being respectively 14, 20, 25, and 29 per cent. above the Mint price of 77*s.* 10½*d.* per oz. During this period the evil consequences of this state of things was aggravated by the great quantities of foreign goods that were accumulated in our warehouses, and for which no market could be found. These goods were either actually the property of English merchants, being received in return for manufactures exported, or were virtually so through advances made to the owners, in addition to the freight, insurance, and other charges which had been incurred upon them. Such of our manufacturers as had the means of doing so, had accumulated large stocks of goods in their stores, but one after another their means of employing workmen fell off, so that in the beginning of 1811 the state of distress among all the trading classes had arisen to a most alarming height; meetings were held in the city of London to consider as to the course to be pursued to mitigate the evil, and a select Committee of the House of Commons was appointed with the same view. The distress was partially alleviated by the issue of Exchequer bills on loan to the merchants, but effectual relief was not obtained until the tide of prosperity began to turn from the ruler of France, and the continental nations casting off the shackles in which he had bound them, leagued together

in alliance with England, for the recovery of their independence: their ports were then, of course, open to our commerce, and the goods which had been accumulating in our docks and warehouses were distributed to willing purchasers.

The desire of obtaining British manufactured goods and colonial produce was exhibited on the part of the inhabitants of the Continent in a remarkable manner during the years which immediately followed the promulgation of the Berlin Decree. This scheme for the destruction of our trade was not confined to France, but was adopted likewise by the governments of Austria, Prussia, the States of the Germanic Confederation, Russia, Holland, and the Italian States; and neither trouble nor precaution was spared in order to insure its complete adoption. So great, however, was the desire of obtaining the prohibited articles, that all the efforts of the French Commissioners were of little avail, and the export trade of the country was maintained during the years in which the continental system was enforced, at a level nearly as high as it had previously acquired. The author of a pamphlet, published in 1835, entitled, 'England, Ireland, and America,' says, when speaking on this subject, "It would be amusing, and full of romantic interest, to detail some of the ten thousand justifiable arts invented to thwart this unnatural coalition, which, of necessity, converted almost every citizen of Europe into a smuggler. Bourienne, who was himself one of the commissioners appointed to enforce these prohibitions at Hamburgh, gives some interesting anecdotes in his Memoirs under this head. The writer is acquainted with a merchant who was interested in a house that employed 500 horses in transporting British goods, many of which were landed in Sclavonia, and thence conveyed

overland to France at a charge of about 28*l.* per cwt., more than fifty times the present freight of merchandize to Calcutta!" In the plenitude of his power, Napoleon was unable to prevent the clandestine introduction and sale of English goods in the very capital of his empire: he was, besides, led occasionally to relax the system so far as to grant licenses for the introduction of British and colonial goods. Those licenses, which were given to some favoured individuals among his staff and court, were sold to the merchants; and it has been stated that as much as a million of francs—40,000*l.*—has been realised from the sale of one of these commercial indulgences.

It has been often brought as matter for reproach against the ministry of that day, that, in the negotiations at Vienna which followed the downfall of Napoleon, the commercial interests of this country were most heedlessly abandoned. It can hardly be denied that the minister by whom England was represented at the Congress of Vienna knew but little, and cared as little, about commercial matters; and that certain of the better-informed diplomatists of other countries were not backward to take advantage of his ignorance and supineness. Conquests, which offered wide and improving fields for commercial and manufacturing enterprise, were given up as it were through complaisance; not an effort was made to open for our use the great rivers—the highways for commerce with the interior of Europe; and the whole subject of trade was abandoned, apparently lest the pursuit of what might be called our selfish interest should tarnish the laurels we had gathered in the fields of slaughter. The amount of the sacrifices thus made it would be impossible to estimate; but at however high an amount they may be reckoned, it is probable that we

have suffered far more through our long persistence in a system of restriction and prohibition. This, although it might have been comparatively inoperative during the period of war, could not fail to be viewed with jealousy and anger so soon as peace enabled other nations to turn their attention to foreign commerce. The pertinacity with which we so long adhered to our navigation laws, and the numerous anti-social vices that were suffered to deform our tariff, were calculated to foster this spirit of jealousy on the part of others, and to provoke them to acts of retaliation, from which we, as the most commercial nation, were sure to be the greatest sufferers. The ministry of that time was supported in this adherence to a system of restriction by many commercial men, whose modes of business being adapted to that system, they dreaded lest its relaxation might be followed by personal loss to themselves; and it was their endeavour, in which they too well succeeded, to persuade the government and the legislature that any change of system must tend to destroy the foreign commerce of the country. It has been, unfortunately, the common practice in this country, when legislating upon commercial matters, to consider the interests of the merchants actually engaged in its prosecution, and not the advantage of trade itself, which is always best promoted by attention to the interests of the consumers, rather than by assisting the merchants to obtain, by means of what is called protection, an unnatural rate of profit.

The narrow views which have been here explained were not universally held by mercantile men. In the year 1820 a considerable number of the most wealthy and enterprising houses in London joined in a petition to the House of Commons, embodying principles, the justice and liberality of which will assure to them the assent at all times of enlightened men, and reference will

long be made to this Petition as to the deliberate opinions of practical and experienced merchants upon points which they are peculiarly fitted to understand.

This Petition was in the following terms :—

" To the Honourable the House of Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

" The humble Petition of the undersigned Merchants of the City of London,

" Sheweth; That foreign commerce is eminently conducive to the wealth and prosperity of a country, by enabling it to import the commodities for the production of which the soil, climate, capital and industry of other countries are best calculated, and to export in payment those articles for which its own situation is better adapted.

" That freedom from restraint is calculated to give the utmost extension to foreign trade, and the best direction to the capital and industry of the country.

" That the maxim of buying in the cheapest market and selling in the dearest, which regulates every merchant in his individual dealings, is strictly applicable as the best rule for the trade of the whole nation.

" That a policy founded on those principles would render the commerce of the world an interchange of mutual advantages, and diffuse an increase of wealth and enjoyments among the inhabitants of each state.

" That, unfortunately, a policy the very reverse of this has been, and is, more or less, adopted and acted upon by the government of this and of every other country, each trying to exclude the productions of other countries, with the specious and well-meant design of encouraging its own productions ; thus inflicting on the bulk of its subjects, who are consumers, the necessity of submitting to privations in the quantity or quality of commodities; and thus rendering what ought to be

the source of mutual benefit and of harmony among states, a constantly-recurring occasion of jealousy and hostility.

"That the prevailing prejudices in favour of the protective or restrictive system may be traced to the erroneous supposition that every importation of foreign commodities occasions a diminution or discouragement of our own productions to the same extent; whereas, it may be clearly shown, that although the particular description of production which could not stand against unrestrained foreign competition would be discouraged; yet as no importation could be continued for any length of time without a corresponding exportation, direct or indirect, there would be an encouragement, for the purpose of that exportation, of some other production to which our situation might be better suited; thus affording at least an equal, and probably a greater, and certainly a more beneficial employment to our own capital and labour.

"That of the numerous protective and prohibitory duties of our commercial code, it may be proved, that while all operate as a very heavy tax on the community at large, very few are of any ultimate benefit to the classes in whose favour they were originally instituted, and none to the extent of the loss occasioned by them to other classes.

"That among the other evils of the restrictive or protective system, not the least is, that the artificial protection of one branch of industry or source of production against foreign competition, is set up as a ground of claim by other branches for similar protection; so that if the reasoning upon which restrictive or prohibitory regulations are founded were followed out consistently, it would not stop short of excluding us from all foreign

commerce whatsoever. And the same train of argument, which, with corresponding prohibitions and protective duties, should exclude us from foreign trade, might be brought forward to justify the re-enactment of restrictions upon the interchange of productions (unconnected with public revenue) among the kingdoms composing the union, or among the counties of the same kingdom.

"That an investigation of the effects of the restrictive system, at this time, is peculiarly called for, as it may, in the opinion of the Petitioners, lead to a strong presumption that the distress which now so generally prevails is considerably aggravated by that system; and that some relief may be obtained by the earliest practicable removal of such of the restraints as may be shown to be most injurious to the capital and industry of the community, and to be attended with no compensating benefit to the public revenue.

"That a declaration against the anti-commercial principles of our restrictive system is of the more importance at the present juncture, inasmuch as in several instances of recent occurrence, the merchants and manufacturers in foreign states have assailed their respective governments with applications for further protection or prohibitory duties and regulations, urging the authority and example of this country, against which they are almost exclusively directed, as a sanction for the policy of such measures. And certainly, if the reasoning upon which our restrictions have been defended is worth anything, it will apply in behalf of the regulations of foreign states against us. They insist upon our superiority in capital and machinery, as we do upon their comparative exemption from taxation, and with equal foundation.

"That nothing would more tend to counteract the

commercial hostility of foreign states than the adoption of a more enlightened and more conciliatory policy on the part of this country.

" *That although, as a matter of mere diplomacy, it may sometimes answer to hold out the removal of particular prohibitions, or high duties, as depending upon corresponding concessions by other states in our favour, it does not follow that we should maintain our restrictions in cases where the desired concessions on their part cannot be obtained. Our restrictions would not be the less prejudicial to our own capital and industry, because other governments persisted in preserving impolitic regulations.*

" That, upon the whole, the most liberal would prove to be the most politic course on such occasions.

" That independent of the direct benefit to be derived by this country on every occasion of such concession or relaxation, a great incidental object would be gained by the recognition of a sound principle or standard to which all subsequent arrangements might be referred, and by the salutary influence which a promulgation of such just views by the legislature, and by the nation at large, could not fail to have on the policy of other states.

" That in thus declaring, as your Petitioners do, their conviction of the impolicy and injustice of the restrictive system, and in desiring every practicable relaxation of it, they have in view only such parts of it as are not connected, or are only subordinately so, with the public revenue. As long as the necessity for the present amount of revenue subsists, your petitioners cannot expect so important a branch of it as the Customs to be given up, nor to be materially diminished, unless some substitute, less objectionable, be suggested. But it is against every restrictive regulation of trade not essential to the revenue

—against all duties merely protective from foreign competition—and against the excess of such duties as are partly for the purpose of revenue, and partly for that of protection,—that the prayer of the present Petition is respectfully submitted to the wisdom of Parliament.

"Your Petitioners therefore humbly pray, that your honourable House will be pleased to take the subject into consideration, and to adopt such measures as may be calculated to give greater freedom to foreign commerce, and thereby to increase the resources of the State."

With the single exception of the passage printed in italics, the foregoing petition is highly honourable to the accomplished economist by whom it is understood to have been drawn up, and to the many eminent merchants by whom it was subscribed. It may be fairly admitted that the light which it has thrown on, and the attention which it has been the means of drawing towards the subject, have tended in a powerful manner to bring about the successive relaxations which, since its presentation to Parliament, have been made in our commercial code. The partial success by which it has thus been followed must make it a matter of great regret that it should contain anything capable of being perverted to an opposite end. The author of the petition would probably be among the first to disclaim the advocacy of any disingenuous diplomacy, fortifying himself in this disclaimer by the whole tenor of the document, and especially by the qualifying clause that follows the objectionable paragragh. It is unfortunate, however, that the course of proceeding which it suggests has in many instances been since adopted by the English government. It has been seen on these occasions that, by the relaxation of some restriction, or the abolition of some protective duty, a positive good would arise to the trade of this country;

but it has been seen, at the same time, that this reform would be also beneficial to the commerce of some other country; and it has been thought desirable to render the relaxation doubly profitable to ourselves, by making it the equivalent for some corresponding relaxation in favour of English commerce on the part of the country that would participate in the improvement. From some cause or other—probably the misconception of our motives, or the fear of deception—it has generally happened that it has been thought unwise to grant the price we have demanded for the alteration, and we, having made our relaxation dependent upon the payment of that price, no longer feel ourselves at liberty to persevere in a course which we should otherwise be ready to adopt.

To illustrate this matter, let us suppose that our Government should become convinced, through the successful operations of the smuggler, that the present duty of 22*s*. 6*d*. per gallon upon foreign spirits is injuriously high—that by reducing it to one-half that rate the revenue would be benefited, and the foreign trade of the country increased. Such a reduction would be manifestly to the advantage of France, and our Government would be expected and urged to demand from that country some equivalent concession—such as the admission of our cotton manufactures at moderate rates of duty. A negotiation to this end being opened, the reduction on our part may be made to depend upon our obtaining the concession demanded of the French Government. If this should be granted, there can be no doubt but that the joint benefit would be greater than that to be drawn from the simple reduction of the duty on foreign spirits; but how many circumstances there are which may oppose themselves to the granting of the conces-

sion demanded from our neighbours. Their government may be indisposed to make it, from imagining that the war of the smuggler against our revenue would of itself soon compel our legislature to make the proposed reduction; or the "protected" cotton-manufacturers of France may prove too powerful, and may influence the rejection of the treaty. From some cause or other the restriction against our manufactures may be continued, and in that case the dignity of our government will not allow it to proceed in the business, until the loss to the revenue may have reached a pitch which can be no longer borne.

When communities in general shall become more enlightened, in regard to the principles that should regulate commerce, such negotiations as that above described can never occur. Commercial treaties will then be unknown, because each country will be led to adopt plans that will be of advantage to itself, unchecked by the consideration that some part of that advantage may be shared by others; and not only so, but will be induced the more readily to pursue those plans for the very reason that others will participate in the benefit, assured that the prosperity of its neighbours must always have a beneficial influence upon its own condition.

The part of our restrictive system which was viewed with the greatest favour among all classes, was embodied in the measure generally known under the name of the Navigation Act. The foundation of this Act was laid during the protectorate, and the system was perfected by the 12th Charles II., ch. 18. This Act provided, that no merchandise of either Asia, Africa, or America, should be imported into Great Britain in any but English-built ships, navigated by an English commander, and having at least three-fourths of their crew English. Besides this exclusive right imparted to British shipping,

discriminating duties were imposed, so that goods which might still be imported in foreign ships from Europe were in that case more highly taxed than if imported under the English flag. The system here described continued to be steadily and pertinaciously maintained during more than 160 years, and was looked upon as a monument of wisdom and prudence, to which was mainly attributable the degree of commercial greatness to which we had attained. May we not hope that, with the present amount of our knowledge, it would be difficult to arrive at any such conclusion, or to believe that the trade of any country could possibly be promoted by compelling the merchants to employ dear instead of cheap ships? The earliest deviation from the Navigation Act that was sanctioned by Parliament, arose out of the treaty with the United States of America, in 1815. The States, soon after the establishment of their independence, had passed a navigation law in favour of their shipping, similar in all its main provisions to the English law; and it affords an instructive lesson, that the practical carrying out of this restrictive system to its fullest extent by the two nations was found to be so unproductive of all good effect, as to call for its abandonment. By this treaty, the ships of the two countries were placed reciprocally upon the same footing in the ports of England and the United States, and all discriminating duties chargeable upon the goods which they conveyed were mutually repealed. It adds greatly to the value of this concession, that it was made by no disciple of free-trade doctrines, but was forced by the very consequences of the system itself, from a government strenuously opposed to all change in the direction of relaxation. From that moment it was easy to foretel the abandonment of all the most effective parts of our long-cherished system of protection, since every

country that desired to remove the disadvantage under which we had placed its shipping, had it thenceforward in its power, by adopting our plans in the spirit of retaliation, to compel us to a relaxation of our code. It is worthy of remark that, amidst all the complaints that have been made by British ship-owners, of the abandonment of their interests by their government, it has never been attempted to question the propriety of the American Treaty, nor to complain of its results.

With the exception here noticed, the restrictive system was continued in full force until 1822, when Mr. Wallace, then President of the Board of Trade, introduced five bills which effected a very important alteration. Of these bills (3 Geo. IV., c. 41, 42, 43, 44, and 46) the object of the first was to repeal various obsolete statutes that were enacted in relation to foreign commerce before the passing of the Navigation Act. The second bill repealed various laws dating from the Navigation Act downwards, including those parts of the Navigation Act itself which enacted that goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Asia, Africa, or America, should not be imported into this country, except in British ships navigated as already described, and that no goods of foreign growth, production, or manufacture shall be brought into England from Europe in any foreign ship, except from the place of their production, or from the ports whence they are usually brought, and in ships belonging to the countries of production or accustomed shipment. The third bill was intituled "An Act for the encouragement of navigation and commerce, by regulating the importation of goods and merchandise, so far as relates to the countries or places from whence, and the ships in which, such importation shall be made." By this Act, certain enumerated goods were allowed to be brought to this country from any port

in Europe in ships belonging to the port of shipment. Ships belonging to Holland, which by the Navigation Act had been forbidden to enter English ports with cargo, were placed upon the same footing as the ships of other countries. South American produce, which before the passing of this Act could be brought only from certain ports of Spain and Portugal, were now permitted to be imported direct from the places of growth in ships of the country, the only exception to this concession being against places to which British ships were not admitted for the purposes of trade. The regulation of the trade between our possessions in America and the West Indies, and other places in the same quarters, was the object of the fourth bill. It permitted the importation, subject to specified duties, into certain ports, of various articles from any foreign country in America, or port in the West Indies, either in British vessels or in vessels belonging to the country or place of shipment, and the goods so imported might be again exported to any other colony or to the United Kingdom. The fifth bill also applied to the regulation of the trade of our Western colonies. By its principal provision it was made lawful to export, in British ships from any colony to any foreign port in Europe or Africa, any goods that had been legally imported into the colony, or which were of its own growth or manufacture; and it was further made lawful to export certain enumerated articles in British ships to any such colony from any foreign port in Europe or Africa. By means of these relaxations the colonists were enabled to draw their supplies from any country in Europe, Africa, or America, and to send their produce in return to such markets as should hold out the greatest inducements.

In the year following that in which these Acts were passed, a notification was made to our government by

Prussia that until some relaxation of our system was made in favour of the ships of that country, heavy retaliatory duties would be imposed upon English shipping that should enter any Prussian port. It is surprising, considering the successful stand made eight years before by the United States, that so long a time should have been allowed to elapse before the continental nations proceeded to force us into the adoption of a more liberal course by making us in turn the victims of our anti-social system. The adoption of this natural policy on the part of Prussia would assuredly have been soon followed by a similar movement in other countries, and our merchants and shipowners became immediately clamorous for the interference of the government to obtain the removal of the duties imposed by Prussia. It was under these circumstances that what are called the Reciprocity Acts (4 Geo. IV., c. 77, and 5 Geo. IV., c. 1) were passed. These Acts authorised his Majesty by order in council to permit the importation and exportation of goods in foreign vessels on payment of the same duties as were chargeable when imported in British vessels, in favour of all such countries as should not levy discriminating duties upon goods imported into those countries in British vessels; and further to levy upon the vessels of such countries when frequenting British ports the same tonnage duties as are chargeable on British vessels. A power was, on the other hand, given to the Crown by these Acts of Parliament, to impose additional duties upon goods and shipping against any countries which should levy higher duties in the case of the employment of British vessels in the trade with those countries. The concessions thus made met with only a feeble opposition, the principal Act having passed the Commons by a majority of 5 to 1.

Under the authority of these Acts of Parliament reci-

procity treaties have been concluded with the following countries :—

	Concluded in		Concluded in
Prussia	1824	States of Rio de la Plata	1825
Hanover	1824	Colombia	1825
Denmark	1824	France	1826
Oldenburg	1824	Sweden and Norway	1826
Mecklenburg	1825	Mexico	1826
Bremen	1825	Brazil	1827
Hamburg	1825	Austria	1829
Lubeck	1825		

A great depreciation has undoubtedly taken place in the value of shipping in this country. If, while the prices of all other kinds of property had undergone reduction, the price of ships had been exempted from alteration, it would have been extraordinary, and a circumstance by no means favourable to commerce. It is not possible to estimate proportionally the degree in which this general abatement of prices has affected shipping. One ship differs from another in those qualities which determine its marketable value ; and not only so, but each ship is continually undergoing a change in those qualities. It may be fairly presumed, however, that the general fall of prices has not borne harder upon the owners of ships than upon the holders of other kinds of property, since we find from public documents, as shown in this volume, that the number and tonnage of vessels built since that fall became matter of complaint, have been greater than they were during years which are now pointed out as periods of prosperity by the shipping interest. The materials of which ships are built all participated in the fall—wood, hemp, iron, copper, sail-cloth—every article that can be mentioned as portions of a ship or of her stores had become cheaper, and as new ships could be employed upon lower terms than those built in dearer times, the owners of the latter were of course compelled to accept of less remunerative

rates of freight. Their value in the market was of course affected by the same circumstance, and as no man likes to see his property made less valuable, their owners became discontented. Overlooking the obvious cause of depression, and seeing that not only were they underbid by the owners of British ships built with cheaper materials, but also by the foreign shipowner, whose vessel was built still more cheaply, they forgot the circumstances which had in a manner compelled the government to relax our navigation laws, and attributed their losses and disappointments to the reciprocity treaties. With this feeling, a deputation of shipowners waited upon Mr. Huskisson, when President of the Board of Trade, to remonstrate against the injustice of the new system, which obliged them to enter unprotected into competition with foreign shipping built and navigated so much more cheaply than their own. To meet this complaint in the manner that appeared most obviously fair to all parties, Mr. Huskisson proposed to grant to the builders of ships in this country a drawback equal to the full amount of any duty that had been paid upon the materials used in their construction and equipment. For very obvious reasons, this proposal was not favourably received by the complainants, who dreaded lest the government, by acting upon Mr. Huskisson's suggestion, should give a fresh stimulus to ship-building at home, and raise up new competitors who would be able to rival them successfully in every branch of commerce.

There is not any class of persons in this country, with the exception perhaps of the landowners, which has made such loud and continued complaints of distress as the shipowners have done since the peace in 1814. These gentlemen form a numerous, wealthy, and influential body, and acting as they do in concert, with an organised

committee to watch over their interests, they have always been able to command attention to their representations, and occasionally to defeat such measures of government as were seemingly opposed to their interests. It is not intended to question here the importance, in a political point of view, of our mercantile marine; that importance has always been considered so great that if a sacrifice were needed on the part of the nation, in order to keep up the number and efficiency of our trading-vessels, there would be little question as to the propriety of such a course.* In admitting this, it is by no means intended to allow that any such sacrifice is necessary, or that the activity of our merchants would not furnish an adequate amount of employment in these branches of commerce, where British vessels can be advantageously employed, without any necessity for inciting them by discriminating duties to embark in any course of trade which may tend to injure other classes of the community. If this position be correct, it would be difficult to show why ships, the tools merely with which merchants work, should be more considered than the traffic itself for the conveyance of which they are constructed; why they should be looked upon, as they generally have been in this country, not as the

* It seems deserving of remark that the importance to the country of keeping up our mercantile marine "as a nursery for seamen" to man the national fleet, has been altogether forgotten when encouragement has been given to steam navigation, one of the most certain consequences attending that great invention being to lessen in a very important degree the proportion of seamen required for carrying on a given amount of trade. On the other hand, it is certain that in the event of war breaking out, the whole system of naval armaments will be changed by means of this great invention, and a much smaller number of vessels and of seamen than have formerly been required would need to be employed.

means of commerce, but as its end. It has been a fruitful source of complaint from year to year on the part of the owners of British ships, that a large and increasing amount of foreign tonnage enters the ports of the United Kingdom, and they have been so accustomed to look with jealousy upon these foreign rivals, that they cannot forbear complaining of the competition at periods when it is notorious, and even acknowledged by themselves, that British vessels find full employment at rates of freight which are more satisfactory to themselves than beneficial to the trading interests of the country.

If it were not for the political consideration before alluded to, which causes us to look to our mercantile marine more perhaps than would be necessary if a good system were adopted for recruiting the national fleet, there can be no doubt that the true interests of commerce would require that we should employ the ships of any country which would best and cheapest perform the office of conveying merchandise to and from our shores. It is, indeed, very doubtful whether, if all restrictions now imposed on our foreign commerce in favour of our own flag were abolished, English vessels would not be able successfully—nay, triumphantly—to compete with the ships of every other country. It is a fact, that in our trade with the United States of America, a continually increasing proportion of British tonnage has of late years been employed. In 1821, the proportion of British vessels which entered the ports of the United States was 7¼ per cent., compared with the American tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the States; while, in 1835, that proportion was increased to 39 per cent.: the actual numbers in each of the fifteen years from 1821 to 1835, have been as follows:—

	British Tons.	American Tons.
1821	55,188	765,098
1822	70,669	787,961
1823	89,553	775,271
1824	67,351	850,033
1825	63,036	880,754
1826	69,295	942,206
1827	99,114	918,361
1828	104,167	868,381
1829	86,377	872,949
1830	87,231	967,227
1831	215,887	922,952
1832	288,841	949,622
1833	383,487	1,111,441
1834	453,495	1,074,670
1835	529,922	1,352,653

The increase in British shipping between the first and the last years of the series is 860 per cent.; but the increase in American shipping during the same time has been nearly 77 per cent.; and we have not heard any complaints from American shipowners against the system of reciprocity under which the far greater proportionate increase of British shipping has occurred. If all the foreign tonnage that entered the ports of the United States in each of the years 1821 and 1835 were compared with the American tonnage in those years respectively, it would be found that, in 1821, the proportion was 10.65; whilst, in 1835, it was 47.42 of foreign to 100 American. If, then, we compare in the same way the British and foreign tonnage that entered the ports of the United Kingdom in the same years, it will be found, that in the former year the proportion was 27 per cent.; while, in 1835, it was 35½ per cent. If we, then, turn to the Halcyon days of British shipowners—the days to which they are accustomed to refer as the period of their

greatest prosperity—we shall find that this prosperity was certainly not occasioned by the absence of competition on the part of foreign vessels; for, in each of the years as to which the records have been presented, which occurred between the beginning of the century and the termination of the war, the proportion of foreign to British shipping which entered our ports was far greater than it is at present:—

In 1801	for 100 tons	British,	there were	84.56 tons foreign.
1802	,,	,,	36.02	,,
1803	,,	,,	57.19	,,
1804	,,	,,	67.11	,,
1805	,,	,,	72.58	,,
1806	,,	,,	67.77	,,
1809	,,	,,	80.88	,,
1810	,,	,,	131.27	,,

In whichever way we estimate the amount of our foreign and colonial commerce, whether by the "official value" of the Custom House, or the declared value of the exporters, we shall acquire a very imperfect test of its importance. It is not, according to the money value of the goods, but according to the amount of industry which has been set in motion for their production, that we should estimate our exports; and, on the other hand, it is the quantity, and not the money value of the foreign productions that we receive in return, that forms the true measure of the sum of enjoyment which they have occasioned to the country. The amount of tonnage employed for the conveyance of these products from and to our shores forms, therefore, a much better measure of the progress of our foreign trade than any computations of their cost in money. If, then, we contrast the amount of shipping that entered and left our ports in the two years 1802 and 1836, we find that in the former year it

amounted to rather less than half the tonnage employed in 1836; the numbers being 3,448,060 and 7,061,069 respectively. In 1814, the first year of peace, the tonnage employed amounted to no more than 3,764,428; but since that time the quantity has progressively increased, somewhat slowly at first, but more rapidly of late years. The average of the five years, 1814 to 1818, was 4,147,257 tons; during the next five years, from 1819 to 1823, the average was increased only to 4,200,332 tons; in the following equal period, from 1824 to 1828, the average amount was 5,332,122 tons; during the four years, from 1829 to 1832, the average was 5,908,200; and in the four years ending with 1836, the average was 6,481,524 tons: the actual numbers in each of the last five years were:—

1832	5,706,451
1833	5,948,774
1834	6,281,320
1835	6,634,935
1836	7,061,069

The increase in these five years is the more deserving of remark, because, during the whole period, there has been little or no importation of foreign grain; while, in the six preceding years, the average annual importations employed upwards of 400,000 tons of shipping.

The number and tonnage of registered ships belonging to the United Kingdom and its dependencies from 1803, the earliest year to which the record extends, down to 1836, are shown in the following table. In comparing the amount of tonnage that existed during the war with the amount since on the registry, it must be borne in mind, that in the former period a considerable part of our mercantile marine was employed in the public service, for the conveyance of troops and warlike stores, and that

during a time of peace a smaller number of ships will suffice for carrying on a given amount of traffic than are required during war, when they are liable to detention for convoy. In addition to these circumstances, we must bear in mind the fact already mentioned, that where steam-vessels are employed, the celerity of their movements occasions a very great saving in the tonnage required. (See Table opposite.)

The number and tonnage of merchant vessels built and registered in the British dominions in each year, from 1801 to 1836 (with the exception of 1812 and 1813, the records of which years were destroyed) are given in the following table (page 172). It will be seen, that the amount of new vessels has been much greater during the last twelve years than at any former part of the century. The casualties to which ships are liable are evidently greater during war than in peace; and we should assuredly have required, on that account, to build a larger number between 1801 and 1813 than subsequently, but for the increase of our foreign trade, and but for the number of foreign trading vessels captured between those years and admitted to the privileges of a British register. There is not any existing account of the actual number so admitted in each of the years, but a parliamentary return gives the number and tonnage of foreign built vessels thus privileged, and which continued in existence on the 30th of September of each year, from 1792 to 1812 : these vessels form part of the tonnage included in the statement next given.

Vessels belonging to the United Kingdom and its dependencies.

	United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1803	18,068	1,986,076	2,825	181,787	20,893	2,167,863
1804	18,870	2,077,061	2,904	191,509	21,774	2,268,570
1805	19,027	2,092,489	3,024	190,953	22,051	2,283,442
1806	19,315	2,079,914	2,867	183,800	22,182	2,263,714
1807	19,373	2,096,827	2,917	184,794	22,290	2,281,621
1808	19,580	2,130,396	3,066	194,423	22,646	2,324,819
1809	19,882	2,167,221	3,188	201,247	23,070	2,368,468
1810	20,253	2,210,661	3,450	215,383	23,703	2,426,044
1811	20,478	2,247,322	3,628	227,452	24,106	2,474,774
1814	21,550	2,414,170	2,868	202,795	24,418	9,616,965
1815	21,869	2,447,831	2,991	203,445	24,860	2,681,276
1816	22,026	2,504,290	3,775	279,643	25,801	2,783,933
1817	21,775	2,421,354	3,571	243,632	25,346	2,664,986
1818	22,024	2,452,608	3,483	221,860	25,507	2,674,468
1819	21,997	2,451,597	3,485	214,799	25,482	2,666,396
1820	21,969	2,439,029	3,405	209,564	25,374	2,648,593
1821	21,652	2,355,853	3,384	204,350	25,036	2,560,203
1822	21,238	2,315,403	3,404	203,641	24,642	2,519,044
1823	21,042	2,302,867	3,500	203,893	24,542	2,506,760
1824	21,280	2,348,314	3,496	211,273	24,776	2,559,587
1825	20,701	2.328,807	3,579	214,875	24,280	2,553,682
1826	20,968	2,411,461	3,657	224,183	24,625	2,635,644
1827	19,524	2,181,138	3,675	279,362	23,199	2,460,500
1828	19,646	2,193,300	4,449	324,891	24,095	2,518,191
1829	19,110	2,199,959	4,343	317,041	23,453	2,517,000
1830	19,174	2,201,592	4,547	330,227	23,721	2,531,819
1831	19,450	2,224,356	4,792	357,608	24,242	2,581,964
1832	19,664	2,261,860	4,771	356,208	24,435	2,618,068
1833	19,689	2,271,301	4,696	363,276	24,385	2,634,577
1834	19,975	2,312,355	5,080	403,745	25,055	2,716,100
1835	20,300	2,360,303	5,211	423,458	25,511	2,783,761
1836	20,388	2,349,749	5,432	442,897	25,820	2,792,646

* The records of 1812 and 1813 were destroyed at the burning of the Custom House.

† A new Registry Act (6 Geo. IV. c. 110) came into operation this year; previously to that time many vessels which had been lost from time to time were still continued in the registry, no evidence of their loss having been produced.

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels built and registered in the United Kingdom and its dependencies in various years since 1801.

	United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		British Empire.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	..	...	..	...	1065	122,593
1802	..	...	..	...	1281	137,508
1803	..	...	..	...	1407	135,692
1804	..	...	..	...	991	95,979
1805	..	...	..	...	1001	89,584
1806	..	...	..	...	772	69,198
1807	..	...	..	...	770	68,000
1808	..	...	..	...	568	57,140
1809	..	...	..	...	596	61,396
1810	..	...	..	...	685	84,891
1811	..	...	..	...	870	115,638
1814	706	86,075	158	11,874	864	97,949
1815	912	102,903	271	25,637	1183	128,540
1816	852	84,676	422	32,725	1274	117,401
1817	758	81,210	324	23,219	1082	104,429
1818	753	86,911	306	17,455	1059	104,366
1819	775	88,985	350	23,188	1125	112,173
1820	635	68,142	248	16,440	883	84,582
1821	597	59,482	275	15,365	872	74,847
1822	571	51,533	209	15,611	780	67,144
1823	604	63,788	243	22,240	847	86,028
1824	837	93,219	342	50,522	1179	143,741
1825	1003	124,029	536	80,895	1539	204,924
1826	1131	119,086	588	86,554	1719	205,640
1827	911	95,038	529	68,908	1440	163,946
1828	857	90,069	464	50,844	1321	140,913
1829	734	77,635	416	39,237	1150	116,872
1830	750	77,411	367	32,719	1117	110,130
1831	760	85,707	376	34,290	1136	119,997
1832	759	92,915	386	43,397	1145	136,312
1833	728	92,171	431	52,476	1159	144,647
1834	806	102,710	425	55,817	1231	158,527
1835	916	121,722	455	63,230	1371	184,952
1836	709	89,636	*376	49,976	*1085	139,612

* The returns for the colonies not having been all received when this account was made up, the numbers for 1836 cannot be accurately given, and are below the truth.

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Prize Ships admitted to British Registry which continued in existence on the 30th of September of each year, from 1801 to 1812.

	Ships.	Tons.
1801	2779	369,563
1802	2827	358,577
1803	2286	307,370
1804	2533	337,443
1805	2520	339,763
1806	2564	342,248
1807	2764	377,519
1808	3222	448,758
1809	3547	493,327
1810	3903	534,346
1811	4023	536,240
1812	3899	513,044

It is a singular fact, that notwithstanding the importance which has always been assigned to the subject of the employment of shipping in this country, there are not any public documents in existence from which a perfect account can be compiled of the number of vessels and their tonnage that entered the ports of the United Kingdom, and cleared from the same in the years that occurred between 1801 and 1814. In this latter year the Custom House of London was destroyed by fire, and for all information connected with that branch of the public service, which refers to years preceding that event, we are obliged to depend upon returns that had already been made to parliament. All that it is possible to obtain from this source has been used in the compilation of the following tables, the blanks in which it will not be possible ever to supply. Since 1814 the documents are complete.*

* To avoid unnecessary repetition, the notice of docks and harbours constructed and improved during the present century, will be inserted in the sixth section of this work, which will treat of "accumulation."

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, British and Foreign, that entered the Ports of the United Kingdom, exclusive of the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Coasting Trade, in each year from 1801 to 1836, so far as the same can be made up from records at the Custom House.

INWARDS.

	British.		Foreign.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	4,987	922,594	5,497	780,155	10,484	1,702,749
1802	7,806	1,333,005	3,728	480,251	11,534	1,813,256
1803	6,264	1,115,702	4,254	638,104	10,518	1,753,806
1804	4,865	904,932	4,271	607,299	9,136	1,512,231
1805	5,167	953,250	4,517	691,883	9,684	1,645,133
1806	5,211	904,367	3,793	612,904	9,004	1,517,271
1807	..	...	4,087	680,144	..	...
1808	..	...	1,926	283,657	..	...
1809	5,615	938,675	4,922	759,287	10,537	1,697,962
1810	5,154	896,001	6,876	1,176,243	12,030	2,072,244
1811	..	...	3,216	687,180	..	...
1814	8,975	1,290,248	5,286	599,287	14,261	1,889,535
1815	8,880	1,372,108	5,314	746,985	14,194	2,119,093
1816	9,744	1,415,723	3,116	379,465	12,860	1,795,188
1817	11,255	1,625,121	3,396	445,011	14,651	2,070,132
1818	13,006	1,886,394	6,238	762,457	19,244	2,648,851
1819	11,974	1,809,128	4,215	542,684	16,189	2,351,812
1820	11,285	1,668,060	3,472	447,611	14,757	2,115,671
1821	10,810	1,599,274	3,261	396,256	14,071	1,995,530
1822	11,087	1,664,186	3,389	469,151	14,476	2,133,337
1823	11,271	1,740,859	4,069	582,996	15,340	2,323,855
1824	11,733	1,797,320	5,653	759,441	17,386	2,556,761
1825	13,516	2,144,598	6,968	958,132	20,484	3,102,730
1826	12,473	1,950,630	5,729	694,116	18,202	2,644,746
1827	13,133	2,086,898	6,046	751,864	19,179	2,839,762
1828	13,436	2,094,357	4,955	634,620	18,391	2,728,977
1829	13,659	2,184,525	5,218	710,303	18,877	2,894,828
1830	13,548	2,180,042	5,359	758,828	18,907	2,938,870
1831	14,488	2,367,322	6,085	874,605	20,573	3,241,927
1832	13,372	2,185,980	4,546	639,979	17,918	2,825,959
1833	13,119	2,183,814	5,505	762,085	18,624	2,945,899
1834	13,903	2,298,263	5,894	833,905	19,797	3,132,168
1835	14,295	2,442,734	6,005	866,990	20,300	3,309,724
1836	14,347	2,505,473	7,131	988,899	21,478	3,494,372

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, British and Foreign, that cleared from the Ports of the United Kingdom, exclusive of the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Coasting Trade, in each year from 1801 to 1836, so far as the same can be made up from records at the Custom House.

OUTWARDS.

	British.		Foreign.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	..	...	..	...	..	...
1802	7,471	1,177,224	3,332	457,580	10,803	1,634,804
1803	5,523	950,787	3,672	574,420	9,195	1,525,207
1804	4,983	906,007	4,093	587,849	9,076	1,493,856
1805	5,319	971,496	3,932	605,821	9,251	1,577,317
1806	5,219	899,574	3,459	568,170	8,678	1,467,744
1807	..	...	3,846	631,910	..	...
1808	..	...	1,892	282,145	..	...
1809	5,488	950,565	4,530	699,750	10,018	1,650,315
1810	3,969	860,632	6,641	1,138,527	10,610	1,999,159
1811	..	...	...	...	..	...
1814	8,620	1,271,952	4,622	602,941	13,242	1,874,893
1815	8,892	1,398,688	4,701	751,377	13,593	2,150,065
1816	9,044	1,340,277	2,579	399,160	11,623	1,739,437
1817	10,713	1,558,336	2,905	440,622	13,618	1,998,958
1818	11,445	1,715,488	5,399	734,649	16,844	2,450,137
1819	10,250	1,562,332	3.795	556,511	14,045	2,118,843
1820	10,102	1,549,508	2,969	433,328	13,071	1,982,836
1821	9,797	1,488,644	2,626	383,786	12,423	1,872,430
1822	10,023	1,539,260	2,843	457,542	12,866	1,996,802
1823	9,666	1,546,976	3,437	563,571	13,103	2,110,547
1824	10,157	1,657,533	5,026	746,707	15,083	2,404,240
1825	10,848	1,793,994	6,075	905,520	16,923	2,699,514
1826	10,844	1,737,425	5,410	692,440	16,254	2,429,865
1827	11,481	1,887,682	5,714	767,821	17,195	2,655,503
1828	12,248	2,006,397	4,405	608,118	16,653	2,614,515
1829	12,636	2,063,179	5,094	730,250	17,730	2,793,429
1830	12,747	2,102,147	5,158	758,368	17,905	2,860,515
1831	13,791	2,300,731	5,927	896,051	19,718	3,196,782
1832	13,292	2,229,269	4,391	651,223	17,683	2,880,492
1833	13,266	2,244,274	5,250	758,601	18,516	3,002,875
1834	13,639	2,296,325	5,823	852,827	19,462	3,149,152
1835	13,948	2,419,941	6,047	905,270	19,995	3,325,211
1836	14,207	2,531,577	7,048	1,035,120	21,255	3,566,697

The following tables refer to the trade of the single year 1836, and exhibit the number of vessels arriving and departing from and to various parts of the world. The first table shows the countries to which the vessels belonged; and the second distinguishes the country from and to which they proceeded. The difference observable in the totals of these two tables arises from the fact, that vessels arriving or departing in ballast are not included in the account which distinguishes the flags under which the ships sailed.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards in the year ending 5th January, 1837, stated exclusively of Vessels in Ballast, and of those employed in the Coasting Trade, or the Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.

Countries to which the Vessels belonged.	Entered Inwards. Year ending 5th January.		Cleared Outwards. Year ending 5th January.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom and its dependencies	11,644	2,250,173	10,216	1,828,501
Russia	225	61,435	104	29,290
Sweden	198	26,900	135	16,252
Norway	873	144,162	213	23,298
Denmark	772	61,960	810	68,106
Prussia	873	175,938	361	67,462
Other German States	773	57,843	528	45,618
Holland	408	34,432	369	36,114
Belgium	309	37,188	330	40,624
France	799	33,805	867	59,115
Spain	57	6,233	53	6,566
Portugal	83	9,231	51	7,033
Italian States	47	9,608	50	10,560
Other European States	...	...	...	...
United States of America	539	222,803	562	254,565
Other States in America, Africa, or Asia	3	656	5	2,413
Total	17,603	3,132,367	14,654	2,495,517

Statement of the Shipping employed in the Trade of the United Kingdom in the Year 1836, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels that Entered Inwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews, separating British from Foreign Vessels, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country.

COUNTRIES.	INWARDS.					
	British.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Russia	1,611	322,133	14,471	274	65,735	3,087
Sweden	66	10,865	509	250	42,439	2,114
Norway	15	1,573	102	785	125,875	6,473
Denmark	16	2,152	111	694	51,907	3,192
Prussia	270	42,567	2,048	903	174,439	7,749
Germany	613	118,578	5,811	754	59,937	3,441
Holland	1,026	143,285	7,533	555	48,953	3,139
Belgium	501	51,522	4,453	409	49,185	3,043
France	2,036	198,339	16,561	1,740	108,352	11,417
Portugal, Proper	367	41,880	2,510	91	9,811	876
„ Azores	192	14,585	914	..	..	..
„ Madeira	16	3,418	254	..	..	..
Spain and the Balearic Islands	410	45,546	3,056	58	6,521	505
„ Canaries	29	2,682	153	4	385	41
Gibraltar	56	8,063	659	1	294	16
Italy and the Italian Islands	387	58,928	3,166	40	8,164	495
Malta	7	1,113	76	..	..	..
Ionian Islands	46	6,527	363	..	..	..
Turkey and Continental Greece	130	19,373	992	..	..	..
Morea and Greek Islands	15	2,252	112	..	..	..
Egypt	19	3,306	175	1	300	12
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	26	3,127	160	..	..	..
Coast of Africa, from Morocco to the Cape of Good Hope	138	32,458	1,817	..	..	..
Cape of Good Hope	30	5,634	309	..	..	..
Eastern Coast, from the Cape of Good Hope to Babel Mandel	1	79	6	..	..	..
Cape de Verd Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..
St. Helena and Ascension	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madagascar	2	428	26	..	..	..
Mauritius	68	17,690	924	..	..	..
Arabia	3	569	41	..	..	..
East India Company's Territories, Singapore, and Ceylon	227	97,034	5,788	..	..	..
Sumatra	..	..	..	..	..	..
Java	3	1,075	45	3	1,007	53
Other Islands of the Indian Sea, exclusive of the Philippines	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippine Islands	5	1,212	65	..	..	..
Ports of Siam	1	337	18	..	..	..
China	80	40,686	2,530	..	..	..
New South Wales	59	19,195	1,015	..	..	..
New Zealand	1	368	20	..	..	..
British Northern Colonies	2,026	620,772	26,146	..	..	..
British West Indies	900	237,922	12,770	..	..	..
Hayti	3	471	27	..	..	..
Cuba, and other Foreign West Indies	31	5,667	305	12	2,595	112
United States	226	86,383	3,575	524	226,483	7,799
Mexico	31	5,343	285	2	425	22
Guatemala	5	731	43	..	..	..
Columbia	23	4,560	258	2	506	23
Brazils	201	45,833	2,272	3	619	32
States of Rio de la Plata	25	4,389	232	..	..	..
Chili	48	11,826	630	11	3,232	179
Peru	14	3,103	181	..	..	..
The Whale Fisheries	86	28,955	3,470	..	..	..
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	2,256	130,944	10,602	15	1,735	101
Total	14,347	2,505,473	137,589	7,131	988,899	53,921

Statement of the Shipping employed in the Trade of the United Kingdom in the Year 1836, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels that Cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews, separating British from Foreign Vessels, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country.

COUNTRIES.	OUTWARDS.					
	British.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships	Tons	Men.
Russia	1,244	253,266	11,677	273	67,625	3,067
Sweden	65	10,561	509	204	28,138	1,515
Norway	17	1,600	114	820	137,606	6,892
Denmark	309	55,413	2,607	1,042	100,671	5,660
Prussia	212	32,518	1,608	680	135,049	5,918
Germany	660	126,157	6,144	781	57,661	3,508
Holland	945	139,172	7,263	576	51,853	3,515
Belgium	457	42,736	4,065	348	43,949	2,807
France	2,239	229,640	18,432	1,433	97,271	9,819
Portugal, Proper	324	38,272	2,478	103	15,755	1,017
„ Azores	144	10,564	766	18	2,004	173
„ Madeira	21	4,504	312	1	194	11
Spain and the Balearic Islands	318	36,239	2,591	58	9,032	545
„ Canaries	27	2,572	150	6	773	58
Gibraltar	162	20,814	1,365	4	1,064	54
Italy and the Italian Islands	359	54,095	3,027	62	12,881	731
Malta	80	11,626	649	1	190	12
Ionian Islands	31	6,182	358	..	..	..
Turkey and Continental Greece	156	26,632	1,452	2	580	28
Morea and Greek Islands	3	367	22	..	..	..
Egypt	44	7,879	418	..	..	..
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	26	4,251	215	10	2,988	136
Coast of Africa, from Morocco to the Cape of Good Hope	174	42,671	2,428	1	92	10
Cape of Good Hope	70	14,910	841	..	..	..
Eastern Coast, from the Cape of Good Hope to Babel Mandel	1	235	11	..	..	..
Cape de Verd Islands	2	472	26	..	..	..
St. Helena and Ascension	5	967	54	..	..	..
Madagascar	1	258	12	..	..	..
Mauritius	66	18,576	1,016	..	..	..
Arabia	6	692	100	..	..	..
East India Company's Territories, Singapore, and Ceylon	267	117,784	7,224	..	..	..
Sumatra	1	279	16	..	..	..
Java	13	4,056	244	4	1,148	73
Other Islands of the Indian Sea, exclusive of the Philippines	1	221	13	..	..	..
Philippine Islands	2	488	36	..	..	..
Ports of Siam	..	..	..	..	..	..
China	38	24,099	1,589	12	4,885	227
New South Wales	107	36,788	2,204	..	..	..
New Zealand	..	..	..	..	..	..
British Northern Colonies	1,863	544,903	24,643	..	..	..
British West Indies	892	238,915	13,267	..	..	..
Hayti	38	5,937	321	..	..	..
Cuba, and other Foreign West Indies	75	15,303	834	20	4,617	271
United States	339	128,856	5,714	579	255,046	9,653
Mexico	21	3,880	241	..	..	..
Guatemala	3	456	24	..	..	..
Columbia	8	1,486	82	1	253	13
Brazils	216	50,370	2,569	5	2,839	285
States of Rio de la Plata	26	7,441	386	1	163	10
Chili	27	6,139	366	1	153	12
Peru	18	3,718	226	..	..	..
The Whale Fisheries	94	31,589	3,990	1	500	40
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	1,990	115,028	9,596	1	140	9
Total	14,607	2,531,577	144,295	7,048	1,035,120	56,069

The foregoing tables prove, to demonstration, that the gloomy forebodings of the English shipowners, as already explained, have altogether failed of realization. It is a well known fact that, as regards Prussia, to which country they looked with the greatest degree of apprehension, her mercantile navy has been most markedly diminished in amount since the commencement of our reciprocity agreement with that country. Our shipping, on the contrary, is far from having been diminished by admitting this amount of foreign rivalry. Having amounted, on the average of the three years, 1824 to 1826, to 2,582,971 tons, it was increased on the average of the three years ending with 1836, to 2,761,169 tons. If we compare the average amount of British and foreign tonnage that entered the ports of the United Kingdom at these two periods, wes hall find, that while that under the British flag has increased from 1,964,183 to 2,415,490 tons, or 451,307 tons, the average amount of foreign tonnage so entering has increased only from 803,896 to 896,598, or 92,702 tons, being scarcely more than one-fifth of the increase experienced in British tonnage. If estimated according to their relative proportions at the two periods, it will appear that the increase of British shipping has been 23 per cent., while that of foreign shipping has been exactly one half that rate, or $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The following table shows the course of the import and export trade of this country in each of the years 1802, 1814, and 1835. It will be seen, from this analysis, that the increase of the traffic with European states has been comparatively less in 1835 than it has been with the United States of America and with British possessions out of Europe.

Analysis of the Import and Export Trade of the United Kingdom in the Years 1802, 1814, and 1835 respectively, showing the actual and proportionate amount of Tonnage employed at each period in our commerce with the Principal Geographical Divisions of the world.

PRINCIPAL GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	INWARDS.						OUTWARDS.					
	1802		1814		1835		1802		1814		1835	
	Actual Amount of British and Foreign Tonnage employed.	Centesimal Proportions.	Actual Amount of British and Foreign Tonnage employed.	Centesimal Proportions.	Actual Amount of British and Foreign Tonnage employed.	Centesimal Proportions.	Actual Amount of British and Foreign Tonnage employed.	Centesimal Proportions.	Actual Amount of British and Foreign Tonnage employed.	Centesimal Proportions.	Actual Amount of British and Foreign Tonnage employed.	Centesimal Proportions.
European Kingdoms or States .	1,178,705	65.00	1,131,281	63.57	1,615,036	48.79	1,034,517	63.28	1,126,152	65.06	1,615,563	48.59
British Dominions in Europe (excluding Ireland)	67,878	3.79	83,507	4.69	172,483	5.21	60,275	3.69	84,755	4.90	165,233	4.97
United States of America . . .	111,118	6.12	2,661	0.15	318,846	9.63	123,108	7.53	476	0.03	370,924	11.15
Foreign Colonies, &c., in West Indies and America . . .	7,866	0.43	83,906	4.71	87,604	2.64	1,804	0.11	67,163	3.88	101,806	3 06
British Colonies in West Indies and America.	336,344	18.54	313,658	19.32	866,524	26.21	268,463	16.42	348,188	20.12	803,596	24,17
Africa	7,270	0.40	13,514	0.76	40,131	1.21	44,070	2 70	15,945	0.92	48,586	1.46
Cape of Good Hope and India .	67,627	3.72	74,117	4.16	161,473	4.88	59,546	3.64	41,993	2.43	149,958	4.51
New South Wales, &c. . . .	..	..	438	0.02	16,019	0.48	..	..	561	0.03	35,919	1.08
Greenland and Southern Fisheries	36,448	2.00	46,550	2.62	31,608	0.95	43,021	2.63	45,575	2 63	33,626	1.01
Total . . .	1,813,256	100.00	1,779,632	100.00	3,309,724	100.00	1,634,804	100.00	1,730,808	100.00	3,325,211	100.00

Chapter X.

PROGRESS OF TRADE IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Foreign Trade of France, 1801 to 1836—Shipping employed therein, 1820 to 1836—Proportions of National to Foreign Shipping employed by England, France, United States of America, Sweden, Norway, and Russia—Foreign Trade of United States of America, 1801 to 1836.

The foreign trade of France has increased greatly since the peace. During the continuance of war, the commerce of her Atlantic ports was completely ruined by our cruizers; and at Havre, which, from its being the centre of the trade with the United States, has been called the Liverpool of France, a great part of the houses were then shut up; the stores and harbours were empty; and it is no figure of speech to say that grass grew in the streets. The traffic across the frontiers with Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and the Rhenish provinces, was not equally interrupted, and may even have been pursued with greater activity, because of the blockade of the ports, while the trade carried on within the Mediterranean, although greatly harassed and interrupted, was by no means annihilated, as was the case with that of the ports in the English Channel.

The following table shows the amount of the import and export trades of France in each year, from the be-

ginning of the century to the close of 1836, reduced to English money at the exchange of 25 francs to the pound sterling :—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
	£.	£.
1801	16,609,167	12,177,240
1802	18,597,986	12,973,046
1803	17,195,986	13,835,118
1804	17,616,681	15,181,252
1805	19,676,230	14,985,375
1806	19,073,481	18,198,434
1807	15,728,104	15,022,963
1808	12,804,756	13,232,196
1809	11,469,964	13,273,824
1810	13,466,536	14,601,340
1811	11,942,464	13,116,232
1812	8,319,480	16,745,848
1813	10,043,420	14,170,292
1814	9,558,236	13,842,116
1815	7,936,648	15,908,174
1816	10,462,766	18,528,842
1817	13,592,010	15,791,494
1818	14,276,558	17,968,261
1819	12,368,931	16,619,177
1820	14,525,575	18,196,727
1821	15,777,694	16,190,583
1822	17,047,168	15,406,748
1823	14,473,129	15,630,177
1824	18,194,464	17,621,676
1825	21,344,896	26,691,764
1826	22,589,144	22,420,340
1827	22,632,169	24,096,071
1828	24,307,172	24,396,905
1829	24,654,136	24,312,746
1830	25,533,537	22,906,562
1831	20,513,022	24,726,796
1832	26,114,893	27,851,285
1833	27,731,030	30,652,652
1834	28,807,773	28,588,201
1835	30,429,067	33,376,545
1836	36,223,014	38,451,390

The course of the Foreign Trade of France, and its amount with each country, in each of the four years from 1832 to 1835.

IMPORTATIONS.

COUNTRIES.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
United States of America	89,400,000	99,000,000	97,300,000	89,500,000
Belgium	64,000,000	68,800,000	66,300,000	72,000,000
Sardinia	72,800,000	68,600,000	75,100,000	59,000,000
England and British possess. in Europe	44,000,000	39,700,000	53,500,000	61,300,000
Austria & Venetian Lombardy	34,200,000	48,200,000	36,000,000	41,800,000
Germany	22,400,000	28,400,000	33,100,000	57,500,000
Switzerland	23,200,000	31,200,000	39,000,000	59,300,000
Spain & the Canaries	27,200,000	43,800,000	28,700,000	38,700,000
Guadaloupe	23,400,000	21,200,000	24,600,000	23,800,000
British India and New South Wales	14,500,000	27,400,000	34,000,000	26,300,000
Russia	34,700,000	23,100,000	17,800,000	21,300,000
Prussia	23,300,000	20,500,000	19,700,000	23,000,000
Martinique	16,400,000	14,800,000	17,100,000	16,200,000
Turkey and Greece	20,800,000	18,000,000	15,700,000	20,200,000
Bourbon	14,900,000	16,200,000	16,300,000	18,400,000
Two Sicilies	21,000,000	15,100,000	18,100,000	13,200,000
Sweden, Norway, & Denmark	13,700,000	16,100,000	16,200,000	16,700,000
Hanse Towns	15,200,000	8,600,000	6,500,000	10,700,000
Tuscany and Roman States	11,400,000	9,500,000	11,800,000	8,700,000
Brazil	5,900,000	9,000,000	10,300,000	8,000,000
Algiers and Barbary States	8,600,000	10,200,000	11,100,000	10,300,000
St. Pierre, Miquelon, and Fisheries	7,300,000	7,700,000	7,700,000	7,100,000
Holland	8,200,000	5,500,000	8,600,000	6,900,000
Cuba and Porto Rico	3,400,000	6,700,000	8,000,000	7,500,000
Mexico	7,900,000	5,300,000	6,700,000	7,000,000
Hayti	3,500,000	3,500,000	5,100,000	5,900,000
Rio de la Plata	4,600,000	4,700,000	5,900,000	5,400,000
Egypt	3,900,000	4,900,000	4,100,000	3,600,000
China, Cochin-China, &c.	600,000	3,600,000	6,200,000	2,000,000
Senegal	2,600,000	2,100,000	2,400,000	3,000,000
Chili	..	..	..	..
Peru	..	..	..	..
Portugal and possessions of ditto	..	..	..	..
Other Countries	10,000,000	11,600,000	17,100,000	16,700,000

The course of the Foreign Trade of France, and its amount with each country, in each of the four years from 1832 to 1835.

EXPORTATIONS.

COUNTRIES.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
United States of America	Francs 87,600,000	Francs. 135,000,000	Francs. 113,000,000	Francs. 196,000,000
Belgium	50.000,000	52,300.000	44,200,000	43,800,000
Sardinia	51.000,000	49,700,000	49,100,000	44,000,000
England and British possess. in Europe	101,800,000	116,200,000	93,800,000	100.000,000
Austria & Venetian Lombardy	7,400,000	6,700.000	5,200,000	6,800,000
Germany	49,600,000	42,000,000	45,300.000	36,000,000
Switzerland	55.900.000	58,200,000	65,000.000	73,500.000
Spain & the Canaries	40,100,000	62,500,000	49,000,000	82,100.000
Guadaloupe	22,900,000	12,300,000	14,400,000	16,500,000
British India and New South Wales	4,800,000	5,200,000	4,900.000	4,600,000
Russia	11.400,000	10.500,000	8,000.000	11.500,000
Prussia	10.700,000	7,400.000	7,600,000	9,600.000
Martinique	21.300.000	12,400,000	14,500.000	16,700.000
Turkey and Greece	17,600 000	16.400.000	17,200,000	17,300.000
Bourbon	5,500,000	7,000,000	8,700.000	7.900.000
Two Sicilies	9,300,000	10,900,000	10,400,000	5,000,000
Sweden, Norway, & Denmark	5.400.000	5,700,000	5,000,000	5,100.000
Hanse Towns	16,700,000	18,000.000	14,400,000	16,100,000
Tuscany and Roman States	12,400,000	11,700,000	12,100,000	9,400,000
Brazil	9,400,000	18,200,000	21,200,000	22,700,000
Algiers and Barbary States	16,800 000	24,300,000	17,900,000	14,400,000
St.Pierre, Miquelon, and Fisheries	3,400,000	4,800,000	4,900,600	5,000,000
Holland	25.200,000	16.000,000	20,400,000	19.300,000
Cuba and Porto Rico	9,200.000	8,700.000	11,100,000	9,400.000
Mexico	13,400.000	15.000.000	12,000,000	17,300,000
Hayti	5,400.000	6,300.000	4,900,000	5,700.000
Rio de la Plata	4,700,000	5,000.000	3,900,000	4,500.000
Egypt	3,400,000	3,500,000	3,300,000	2,300,000
China, Cochin-China, &c.	..	..	..	..
Senegal	2,500,000	3,800,000	5.300,000	4,600 000
Chili	5,300.000	2,500,000	8,600,000	6,800,000
Peru	4,800,000	4,300,000	2,900,000	1,300,000
Portugal and possessions of ditto	1,300,000	2,000,000	4,000,000	7,000,000
Other Countries	9,800,000	11,800,000	12,800,000	11,800,000

It is impossible to place implicit reliance upon the absolute accuracy of figures, which exhibit, year after year, for considerable periods together, such violent discrepancies as are observable in this statement between the value of the imports and that of the exports. There is, besides, this further objection—that the excess during one cycle of years ranges itself at one side, and, during a subsequent cycle, is found on the opposite side of the account. In the first ten years of this century, the value of the imports is made to exceed that of the exports by more than 18 millions sterling, or about one-ninth part of the whole; while in the ten years from 1827 to 1836, the exports are made to exceed the imports by more than 12 millions, or nearly 5 per cent. of the whole. The first of these decennial periods having been passed in a state of war, while the last has occurred during peace, it might have been expected that a contrary result would have been exhibited, because the necessity of providing for the sustenance and various expenses of its numerous armies in foreign lands would necessarily act as a drain upon the country. It is true, that Napoleon had the credit of providing a great part of his military expenditure from the resources of the countries which his armies occupied; and this opinion seems to gain confirmation from the fact, that the public expenditure of France during the ten years from 1801 to 1810, was less, by the important sum of 137,372,412*l.*, or nearly 14,000,000*l.* per annum, than it was during the ten years from 1827 to 1836, although, during the latter period, the only war in which that country has been engaged, is that undertaken for the occupation of Algiers; the expense of which must have been trifling indeed, in comparison with the cost of the wars prosecuted on the continent of Europe.

The circumstances here brought forward may be capable of explanation, upon other grounds, which are beyond our knowledge; and it would be unprofitable to speculate further in these pages concerning them. The object with which the above table is inserted, is to show how greatly and still more how rapidly the foreign and colonial trade of France has gone on increasing during the last twelve years. The aggregate amount of imports and exports in 1824 was 35,816,140*l.*; and in 1836 it reached 74,674,404*l.*; being an increase in twelve years of 108 per cent.

The official returns of the French Government relative to the shipping employed in the foreign and colonial trade of that country, do not embrace an earlier period than 1820: the following statement is, therefore, necessarily limited to the years from 1820 to 1836, inclusive; during which period the tonnage employed, distinguishing that under the national flag from foreign vessels, was as follows:—

Years.	INWARDS.						OUTWARDS.					
	French.		Foreign.		Total.		French.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Sps.	Tons.	Sps.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Sps.	Tons.	Sps.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1820	3730	335,942	4337	354,556	8,067	690,498	3753	308,063	5866	408,673	9,619	716,736
1821	3493	316,243	4310	367,092	7,803	683,335	3552	290,483	5722	353,965	9,274	644,448
1822	3282	285,560	4456	423,044	7,738	708,604	3493	284,517	5761	357,719	9,354	642,236
1823	2559	229,129	4016	423,162	6,575	652,291	3316	292,744	6159	398,290	9,475	691,034
1824	3387	316,480	4184	438,005	7,571	754,485	3955	325,698	6338	415,241	10,293	740,939
1825	3387	329,735	4218	414,670	7,605	744,405	3908	354,307	5994	400,440	9,902	754,747
1826	3440	355,776	4910	544,682	8,305	900,458	3569	355,745	5308	432,672	8,877	788,417
1827	3350	353,102	4439	475,509	7,889	828,611	3522	346,370	6321	439,842	8,843	786,212
1828	3465	346,591	4728	527,639	8,193	874,230	3341	326,835	5063	460,519	8,404	787,354
1829	3048	331,049	5070	581,755	8,118	912,804	3101	316,462	4490	420,228	7,591	736,690
1830	3236	340,171	5169	669,283	8,405	1,009,454	2679	258,621	4139	370,518	6,818	629,139
1831	3375	333,216	3951	461,194	7,326	794,410	3671	326,253	4240	362,981	7,911	689,234
1832	4290	399,948	5651	714,638	9,941	1,114,586	4045	347,385	4636	461,704	8,681	809,089
1833	3561	358,157	5115	622,735	8,676	980,892	3675	318,840	4580	464,028	8,255	782,868
1834	3965	394,486	6124	736,918	10,089	1,131,404	4221	370,217	5083	518,216	9,304	888,433
1835	4001	407,999	6360	766,033	10,361	1,174,032	4292	387,139	5194	484,807	9,486	871,946
1836	5173	550,121	7099	889,345	12,272	1,439,466	5189	485,611	6200	570,436	11,389	1,056,047

Those persons who have been accustomed to look with jealousy upon the proportion of foreign tonnage engaged in the trade of England, will see, from the foregoing table, how small, when compared with this country, is the proportion of vessels under the national flag employed in the foreign commerce of France. The following tables exhibit, in centesimal proportions, the degree in which both the import and export commerce of England, France, and the United States of America, respectively, have been carried on in the ships of each country for a considerable series of years. It will be here seen, that in the case of each of these countries, the proportionate quantity of foreign to national tonnage has been greater in the last than it was in the commencing year of the series. It must, on the other hand, be observed, that although the proportions have thus been more or less altered in a manner which, when applied to England, our shipowners are accustomed to consider unfavourable, the actual amount of the national tonnage has, in each case, been greatly increased. If that increase has not been equal to the increased amount of the commerce of the countries, does this fact not show that the additional capital, which it is evident must have been embarked in commercial pursuits, has, for the most part, been engaged more profitably for the merchants, and more advantageously for the country, in the prosecution of the trade itself, than it would have been by making additions to the number of the mercantile marine? To suppose otherwise, would be to imagine that the merchants prefer the least profitable channels for the employment of their capital, which appears absurd.

Centesimal Proportions of British and Foreign Tonnage employed in the Import and Export Trades respectively of the United Kingdom, in each year from 1820 to 1836.

Years.	Entered Inwards.		Cleared Outwards.	
	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.
1820	78.84	21.16	78.15	21.85
1821	80.14	19.86	79.50	20.50
1822	78.00	22.00	77.08	22.92
1823	74.91	25.09	73.29	26.71
1824	70.29	29.71	68.94	31.06
1825	69.12	30.88	66.45	33.55
1826	73.75	26.25	71.50	28.50
1827	73.51	26.49	71.08	28.92
1828	76.74	23.26	76.74	23.26
1829	75.46	24.54	73.85	26.15
1830	74.18	25.82	73.48	26.52
1831	73.02	26.98	71.97	28.03
1832	77.35	22.65	77.39	22.61
1833	74.13	25.87	74.73	25.27
1834	73.37	26.63	72.91	27.09
1835	73.85	26.15	72.77	27.23
1836	71.41	28.59	70.97	29.03

Centesimal Proportions of French and Foreign Tonnage, and of American and Foreign Tonnage employed in the Import and Export Trades of France and America respectively, between 1820 and 1836.

Years.	France.				United States of America.			
	Entered Inwards.		Cleared Outwards		Entered Inwards.		Cleared Outwards	
	French.	Foreign.	French.	Foreign.	Americ.	Foreign.	Americ.	Foreign.
1820	48.65	51.35	42.98	57.02				
1821	46.28	53.72	45.06	54.94	90.37	9.63	90.64	9.36
1822	40.30	59 70	44.30	55.70	88.68	11.32	89.30	10.70
1823	35.13	64.87	35 86	64.14	86.65	13.35	87.13	12.87
1824	41.94	58.06	43.95	56.05	89.24	10 76	89.96	10.04
1825	44.29	55.71	46 94	53.06	91.48	8.52	90.99	9.01
1826	39.51	60.49	45 12	54.88	89.91	10.09	90.55	9.45
1827	42.61	57.39	44.04	55 96	86.96	13.04	89.00	11.00
1828	39.65	60.35	41.50	58.50	85.25	14.75	85.59	14.41
1829	36.26	63.74	42.96	57.04	87.57	12.43	87.69	12.31
1830	33.70	66.30	41.11	58.89	87.99	12.01	87.92	12.08
1831	41.94	58.06	47.33	52.67	76.60	23.40	78.14	21.86
1832	35.88	64.12	42 93	57.07	70.72	29.28	71.55	28.45
1833	36.57	63.49	40.73	59.27	69.11	30.89	69.67	30.33
1834	34.87	65.13	41.67	58.33	65.42	34.58	66.25	33.75
1835	34.75	65.25	44.39	55.61	67.84	32.16	68.94	31.06
1836	38.22	61.78	45 98	54.02				

Our information concerning the shipping employed in most other countries is very scanty. The following figures, which comprise all that can be readily adduced upon the subject, will serve to show that the facts connected with the shipping employed even in those countries to which our shipowners look with the greatest jealousy and apprehension, are by no means calculated to justify those feelings :—

Country or Port.	Year.	Entered Inwards.				Cleared Outwards.			
		National Flag.		Foreign Flag.		National Flag.		Foreign Flag.	
		Actual Tonnage.	Centesimal Proportion.	Actual Tonnage.	Centesimal Proportion.	Actual Tonnage.	Centesimal Proportion.	Actual Tonnage.	Centesimal Proportion.
Sweden .	1830	162,954	48.97	169,810	51.03	174,910	48.99	182,083	51.01
	1831	165,835	50.64	161,622	49.36	171,163	51.09	163,830	48 91
	1832	170,224	49.27	175,279	50.73	176,345	49.67	178,617	50.33
	1833	174,713	49.69	176,888	50.31	180,083	49.95	180,436	50.05
	1834	175,193	46.90	198,346	53.10	174,094	45.76	206,242	54.24
Norway .	1829	17,827	4.08	419,588	95.92	32,930	7.20	424,277	92.80
	1830	9,257	2.13	424,546	97.87	25,807	5.51	442,368	94.59
	1831	17,622	3.94	428,777	96.06	33,065	7.45	410,405	92.55
Dantzig .	1829	77,393	52.86	69,009	47.14	80,799	53.95	68,950	46.05
	1830	92,968	55.45	74,679	44.55	90,672	54.88	74,521	45.12
	1831	61,555	61.69	38,224	38.31	58,900	60.68	38,165	39.32
	1835	61,237	64.77	33,297	35.23	61,986	65.19	33,093	34.81
Russia ..	1826	84,886	13.98	522,190	86.02				
	1827	110,958	11.68	838,390	88.32				
	1828	59,412	9.67	554,696	90 33				
	1829	62,528	8.55	669,470	91.45				
	1830	124,110	12.97	832,626	87.03				
	1831	120,544	13.51	771,318	86.49				
	1832	141,166	15.51	768,430	84.49				
	1833	135,696	18.68	590,612	81.32				
	1834	120,554	17.64	562,846	82.36				
	1835	142,634	21.92	507,860	78.08				

The following table, compiled from the returns made every year to Congress by the executive government, shows the progress of the trade of the United States during the present century. The great difference observable between the value of the imports and that of

the exports cannot fail to strike the least careful examiner. This arises, in some part, from the system adopted at the custom-houses of the United States of valuing merchandise, both imported and exported, according to its actual worth at the time in the place where it is landed or shipped. It must be obvious, that under this plan, the value of imports must be greater than that of the exports, not only by the amount of the merchant's profit, but also by the freight of such part at least as is conveyed in ships of the United States. But besides this, it is well known that there is a tendency for foreign capital to find its way for investment to the United States, where it yields a higher rate of interest than can be realised in Europe; and provided such operations are confined within moderate limits, and restricted to objects of a safe and profitable nature, they may be advantageous alike to both countries. It may well be doubted, however, whether the transactions of the last three years recorded in the tables, have been confined within the wholesome limits here pointed out, and whether the balance of imports over exports was not applied to objects of a merely speculative character. That excess appears to have amounted to 23,271,570*l.*, or, on the average, 7,757,190*l.* per annum. The trade with this kingdom alone in those three years exhibits an excess of imports over exports to the amount of 6,847,940*l.*, or, on the average, 2,282,646*l.* per annum; which, as it amounts to 20 per cent. upon the exports, is evidently greater than can be accounted for by the freight and profit together.

Statement of the estimated value of Foreign Merchandize imported into the United States of America, and of American and Foreign Merchandize exported from those States, in each year during the present century, converting Dollars into English money at the rate of fifty pence to the Dollar.

Years ending 30th of Sept.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.		
		Produce, &c., of United States.	Produce of Foreign Countries.	Total Exports.
1801	23,200,731	9,890,250	9,717,233	19,607,483
1802	15,902,777	7,647,539	7,453,119	15,100,658
1803	13,462,313	8,792,908	2,832,098	11,625,006
1804	17,708,333	8,639,057	7,548,248	16,187,305
1805	25,125,000	8,830,625	11,078,964	19,909,589
1806	26,978,416	8,594,526	12,559,006	21,153,552
1807	28,869,765	10,145,747	12,425,741	22,571,488
1808	11,872,916	1,965,322	2,707,794	4,673,116
1809	12,375,000	6,542,854	4,332,818	10,875,672
1810	17,791,666	8,826,390	5,081,519	13,907,909
1811	11,125,000	9,436,258	3,338,081	12,774,339
1812	16,047,916	6,256,689	1,769,817	8,026,506
1813	4,584,375	5,220,031	593,301	5,813,322
1814	2,701,041	1,412,973	30,243	1,443,216
1815	17,308,349	9,578,000	1,381,531	10,959,531
1816	32,354,729	13,496,228	3,570,532	17,066,760
1817	20,574,661	14,231,979	4,032,931	18,264,910
1818	25,364,583	15,386,341	4,047,227	19,433,568
1819	18,155,552	10,620,174	3,992,840	14,613,014
1820	15,510,416	10,767,425	3,768,339	14,535,764
1821	13,038,592	9,098,310	4,446,351	13,544,661
1822	17,341,988	10,390,433	4,642,957	15,033,390
1823	16,162,347	9,824,042	5,738,254	15,562,296
1824	16,781,043	10,551,979	5,278,575	15,830,554
1825	20,070,849	13,946,822	6,789,717	20,736,539
1826	17,703,016	11,053,273	5,112,419	16,165,692
1827	16,559,180	12,275,352	4,875,653	17,151,005
1828	18,439,546	10,556,181	4,498,953	15,055,134
1829	15,519,276	11,604,206	3,470,515	15,074,721
1830	14,766,025	12,387,923	2,997,391	15,385,314
1831	21,498,140	12,766,052	4,173,651	16,939,703
1832	21,047,764	13,153,639	5,008,223	18,161,862
1833	22,524,648	14,649,519	4,129,736	18,779,255
1834	26,358,610	16,880,033	4,856,835	21,736,868
1835	31,228,279	21,081,052	4,271,770	25,352,822
1836	39,579,174	22,274,308	4,530,491	26,804,799

CHAPTER XI.

PRUSSIAN COMMERCIAL LEAGUE.

Declared object of the League—States of which it is composed—Motives which have led to its adoption—Previous Negotiations—Jealousy of English Merchants and Manufacturers—Effect of the League on the Manufactures of Saxony.

THERE is, perhaps, no measure connected with commerce that has occasioned so much discussion in the present day as the Prusso-Bavarian League, which, under the name of *Zoll Verein*, has united, for the purposes of trade, ten of the otherwise independent states of Germany. The arrangements for perfecting this union were in progress during many years, and it came into practical operation at the beginning of 1834. Previous to that time, the states of which the union is composed, did not allow of the introduction of merchandise across their respective frontiers without the payment of a duty; and in some cases, where domestic industry was to be "protected," the importation of many articles was prohibited. The principle of the Commercial League is to destroy all the frontier custom-houses between the leagued states; to allow of the freest intercourse between the subjects of all the different states composing the union; and thus to give to the inhabitants of each the fullest advantage to be derived from a community of interest, and from ex-

tending, in a most important degree, their markets for supply, and the field for the exercise of their industry. Duties on the introduction of merchandise from countries not comprised within the union have, since the 1st of January, 1834, been collected at one uniform rate at custom-houses established on the exterior boundaries of the frontier states; and a principle for dividing the amount of the duties thus collected has been adopted between the governments, without any consideration as to which is the country for whose immediate use the importations are intended, or to any circumstance other than the proportionate amount of population.

The following table exhibits the names of the different states composing the league, the area of each, the number of its inhabitants, and the proportionate amount which each is entitled to receive out of the entire collections made in the custom-houses of the frontier states.

States of the Confederation.	Area in German Geographical Square Miles.	Area in English Square Miles.	Number of Inhabitants.	Deductions for Military and Independent Districts.	Number of Inhabitants by which the Distribution of Revenue is regulated.	Per Centage proportions of the Joint Revenue.
Prussia and its Dependencies	5,157.21	109,126	13,800,126	109,473	13,690,653	54.56
Bavaria	1,477.26	31,259	4,252,813	1,695	4,251,118	16.94
Saxony	271.68	5,749	1,595,668	..	1,595,668	6.36
Wurtemburg	385.15	8,150	1,631,779	..	1,631,779	6.50
Electorate of Hesse . . .	182.10	3,853	700,327	59,653	640,674	2.55
Grand Duchy of Hesse . .	179.25	3,793	769,691	..	769,691	3.07
Thuringia	233.49	4,940	908,478	..	908,478	3.62
Grand Duchy of Baden . .	279.54	5,915	1,232,185	..	1,232,185	4.91
Duchy of Nassau	82.70	1,750	373,601	..	373,601	1.49
	8,248.38	174,535	25,264,668	170,821	25,093,847	100.00
Free City of Frankfort . .	4.33	92	60,000	..	60,000	*
	8,252.71	174,627	25,324,668	170,821	25,153,847	

* The per centage proportions for the division of the Revenue were fixed before the city of Frankfort joined the league. The same proportions are still preserved, but Frankfort's share, calculated upon the same principle, is deducted previous to the apportionment between the other states of the Union.

The districts comprehended in the above abstract under the title of Thuringia, comprise:—

	Sq. German Miles.	Population.
Saxe Meiningen	41.72	146,324
Saxe Altenburg	23.41	117,921
Saxe Coburg Gotha	37.60	129,740
Swarzburg Sondershausen (Upper Lordship)	16.90	23,750
Swarzburg Rudolstadt (Upper Lordship)	19.10	50,332
Principality of Reuss . . .	27.94	99,626
Weimar Eisenach	66.82	226,664
Districts belonging to Prussia (included in the area of that country)	.. ....	88,534
Districts belonging to the Electorate of Hesse	.. ....	25,153
District of Kaulsdorf, belonging to Bavaria	.. ....	434
	233.49	908,478

On the supposition that the real and single object of this peaceful confederation is, that which its promoters have put forth to the world, viz., to simplify the fiscal arrangements of the countries by which it is adopted—there can hardly be formed two opinions in regard either to its wisdom or to the benign influence which it is calculated to have upon the minds and feelings of those who are brought within its operation. It seems, however, to be very generally believed and understood that the object thus avowed is not, so far at least as the chief mover in the plan is concerned, the only or the chief motive which has led to its adoption, but that political views, extending beyond the interests of the present day, and tending to the aggrandisement of Prussia, have been the real incentives to the scheme. This belief is greatly con-

firmed by the facts, that, for a time at least, the revenue which Prussia will draw as her share of the duties on importation will not be of as great amount as her previous receipts from the same source; and that the unlimited competition which is now afforded to the manufacturers of Saxony must act injuriously upon various branches of industry within the Prussian states, which it had previously been the policy of that government to encourage and protect. The obvious conclusion to be drawn from these circumstances is, that Prussia, in consenting to give up a considerable part of her revenue, and to forego the full advantages of branches of domestic industry to which she had previously looked as an element of strength, has the certainty of future indemnification to an extent beyond the amount of her present sacrifices; and this indemnification can only be found in the extension of her political influence.

It may be asked why, if this result be so certain and so obvious, the other states of which the union is formed have been drawn to consent to a scheme, which, although it brings some present profit, will, in the end, be productive of loss to them in the same proportion which Prussia will then realise of gain? It is not possible to go into an examination of the motives by which each of the states has individually been swayed to the course it has adopted, but there are two incentives common to the whole, which have, probably, more than all others, influenced their determination. With the exception of Prussia, all the members of the league would immediately enlarge the sphere of their commercial dealings in different proportions, varying from six-fold in the case of Bavaria to almost seventy-fold in the case of Nassau, and more than four hundred-fold in that of the city of Frankfort. The degree of activity which this would

give to the population in all their various relations must needs occasion an accession of commercial prosperity which would ensure the popular favour to the alteration. This is one of the incentives, and perhaps the most powerful of the two. Then the increase of revenue by which it would be attended, and still more the mode of the collection of that revenue, would render the executive governments in so far independent of their "states" or legislative chambers, and could not fail to recommend the system to the rulers at a time when the temper of the mass rendered the absence of collision upon such a subject peculiarly desirable. We may add, to these reasons, the effect that had been produced upon the public mind throughout the smaller states by popular writers, who, in pointing out the unity which the league was to impart to Germany, had flattered the pride of the people by their descriptions of the power and influence which would thence be given to them among the nations of Europe.

It has been mentioned that the arrangements for establishing the Zoll Verein were in progress during several years. Conferences upon this subject were held in Darmstadt as early as 1820, between the agents of Bavaria, Wurtemburg, Baden, Nassau, Saxony, and some other less important states; and these conferences were renewed from time to time, but were finally broken off in April, 1823. Four years afterwards, a treaty was concluded between Wurtemburg and Bavaria, the same in principle as that subsequently formed between Prussia and the states which comprise the existing Union. Next followed the treaty of Prussia with Hesse, in February, 1828; and in the following September, while the former country was endeavouring to make terms with Wurtemburg and Bavaria, and to induce them to adopt her tariff

—points in which she succeeded—a third association, under the name of the *Mittel Verein*, or middle association, was formed at Cassel between Saxony, Hanover, Hesse Cassel, Brunswick, Hamburg, Weimer, the towns of Frankfort and Bremen, and some of the minor German states. The first and leading conditions of this association will serve to mark the feeling of jealousy with which the designs of the parties to the other two leagues were viewed. It provided that, during six years, none of the contracting parties should relinquish their commercial alliance, nor treat with either the Bavarian or the Prussian league. Prussia soon found means, however, to detach some of its members from the Mittel Verein; and although the remaining members entered into a new treaty in 1829, by which they bound themselves to continue in alliance until 1840, some of its more important branches fell off from it, and the Mittel Verein was dissolved. The negotiations by which these results were produced occupied some years in their discussion; and it was not until the 1st of January, 1834, as already stated, that the Zoll Verein took the consistent form which it has since maintained.

Many of the independent states in the north of Germany have hitherto withstood the temptation offered by Prussia, to bring them within the league: among these are Hanover, Brunswick, Mecklenburg - Schwerin, Oldenburg, and the free towns of Hamburg and Bremen.

The tariff of Prussia was more unfavourable to the admission of English goods than that of the other states with whom she has made this league; for which reason its progress was watched with considerable jealousy by the merchants and manufacturers of this country, who feared, with great apparent reason, that their trade would

suffer in every case where additional rates of duty were imposed. From the manner in which the trade accounts are kept at our custom-houses, it is not possible to enter upon any minute examination of this question, because they afford us no means for separating the trade carried on with the countries that form the league from that maintained with other parts of Germany. If we include, as we therefore must do, the shipments of British produce and manufactures made to all Germany, in each of the ten years from 1827 to 1836, it will be seen that their average annual value has been 4,646,862*l.*, while their average annual value in the three years subsequent to the commencement of the league on 1st January, 1834, has been 4,690,760*l.* The amount in each of the ten years has been remarkably steady, as will be seen from the following figures:—

	£.		£.
1827....	4,828,956	1832....	5,327,553
1828....	4,573,249	1833....	4,499,727
1829....	4,662,566	1834....	4,683,589
1830....	4,641,528	1835....	4,791,239
1831....	3,835,768	1836....	4,624,451

These figures do not afford any ground for complaint, on the part of this country, but it is probable that the full effects of the Union in discouraging the importation of foreign manufactured goods has not yet been experienced.

The cotton manufacture of Saxony has already become of twice the extent that it had reached before the Union, while the linen and woollen manufactures of that country have not experienced any increase. The reason for this difference is, that the persons engaged in the latter, which are more ancient branches of industry in Saxony, are so far "protected," that it is necessary to serve a regular apprenticeship and to obtain admission into the

guilds or corporations established in the manufacturing towns, before any man is allowed to carry on the business; while the recently-established cotton manufacture is without restriction or regulation of any kind, so that any person who can purchase or hire a loom is at liberty to become a cotton weaver.

The manufactures are greatly encouraged by the miserably low rate of wages in Saxony. It is stated on the best authority, that in October, 1837, "a man employed in his loom, working very diligently from Monday morning until Saturday night, from five o'clock in the morning until dusk, and even at times with a lamp, his wife assisting him in finishing and taking him the work, could not possibly earn more than 20 groshen (2*s*. 6*d*. sterling) per week, and that another man who had three children aged 12 years and upwards, all working at the loom as well as himself, with his wife employed doing up the work, could not earn in the whole more than 1 dollar 8 groschen (5*s*. 4*d*.) weekly."

The wretched manner in which the poorer classes in that country subsist may be inferred from the fact exhibited by official statistical returns, that the annual consumption of meat in the principal manufacturing districts, including the town of Chemnitz, does not average more than twenty-eight pounds for each individual of the population, and that at least one half of this quantity consists of pork. If this provision were equally divided among the entire number of inhabitants, it would amount to scarcely more than half a pound weekly for each individual; but as the actual distribution is of course very different from this, it is probable there are many among the labouring artisans who rarely, if ever, taste animal food. The quantity of cotton hosiery made in Saxony has increased immensely of late, and from its

cheapness has not only secured the monopoly of the markets afforded throughout the Union, but has also been shipped largely to the United States, to the exclusion so far of the goods made at Nottingham. It may be stated, on the respectable authority already quoted, that cotton gloves are furnished by the Saxon manufacturers as low as 6 groschen or 9*d.* sterling per dozen pairs; stockings, at 1 dollar or 3*s.* per dozen pairs; and nightcaps, at 8 groschen or 1*s.* per dozen. Stout cotton caps, which are worn by the carmen and common people in that part of Germany, having stripes in six different colours upon a black ground, cost 12 groschen per dozen, or 1½*d.* sterling each.

These low prices are not the result of the same cause which has gradually reduced the cost of production in this country. Hitherto the machinery used in Saxony has been of the commonest sort, so that the cheapness of the manufactured goods has been owing to the low rate of wages, a rate which compels the artisans to labour long and diligently in order to insure for their families the scantiest supply of the most common of the necessaries of life. The capital of the English manufacturer which empowers him to employ the most perfect machinery, joined to his greater experience, have hitherto enabled him to compete successfully in most branches of skilled labour, but these are advantages which cannot be long retained in competition with greatly reduced wages. The profits which the Saxon manufacturers are thence enabled to realise will speedily lead to the introduction of improvements that will place our dearer processes at a still greater disadvantage, and as it is anything but desirable that we should retain our present relative position through the increasing hardships of our operative weavers, there appears to be but one course open to us in order to avert

the evil—that of still further liberalising our commercial system, and especially of lessening the cost of the prime necessaries of life by abolishing all restrictions upon the importation of food.

The want of capital, which has hitherto been the chief obstacle to the still greater extension of the cotton manufacture in Saxony, would in time be remedied by the successful operation of the existing establishments, but the manufacturers in that country, unwilling to wait for so gradual a development of their resources, have had recourse to the expedient of establishing joint-stock companies. The total capital of associations of this character that have been recently formed, and which are now proceeding to the accomplishment of their various objects, amounted in October, 1837, to nearly thirteen millions of dollars, about two millions sterling, a large sum for that country, and the greater part of which is furnished by the bankers and other capitalists of Leipzig.

Chapter XII.

CURRENCY.

Bullion Committee of 1810—Reasons suggested for disagreement on the subject of Currency between the "Economists" and the "Practical Men"—High Prices of Gold, 1809-1815—Issues of Paper Money to facilitate Financial Operations of Government—Peel's Act—Panic of 1825—Formation of Branches by Bank of England—Establishment of Joint-Stock Banks—Number established 1826-1836—Advantages of having only one Bank of Issue—National Bank—Influence of Currency on Prices—Plan for estimating rise and fall of Prices—Effects of abundant or deficient Harvests upon Currency and Prices—Table of Notes in circulation, of Bullion held by the Bank, of Exchanges with Hamburg and Paris, and of comparative Prices of Wheat and Merchandise generally, in each Month, 1833-1837.

No subject of public and general interest has during the last thirty years been more frequently or earnestly debated and examined in this country, than that which relates to our system, or rather our practice—for it can hardly be said that we have pursued any steady system—as regards currency and the operations of banking. Since the appointment, in 1810, of the committee of the House of Commons, which has been so celebrated as *The Bullion Committee*, this subject has repeatedly forced itself upon the attention of the mercantile part of the public and of the government, and at each recurring period when the distress attendant upon the derangement of money operations has been experienced, the whole subject has been submitted to so much examination and has occasioned such keen controversy between public economists, on the one hand, and what

are called practical men, on the other hand, that it is surprising we have not long since arrived at conclusions respecting it which can be recognised as correct by all parties, and which would lead to the adoption of principles and practice by means of which the ruinous alternations now constantly recurring would be rendered impossible. The subject is certainly involved in difficulty, but not, assuredly, to such a degree as should render its solution impossible. Why then, it will be asked, is the public to this moment in so much doubt and perplexity concerning it, and why are our commercial men so ill-informed upon the subject as to be continually liable to mistake appearances which if understood aright should guide them as to the propriety of extending or contracting their undertakings? Where so many and such high authorities are found to disagree, it might perhaps be considered bold to offer an opinion as to which of the parties in the controversy is right. It may be thought still more presumptuous to hazard the suggestion that both may be in some degree wrong, and to remark that our "practical men" have erred because they reasoned from partial and insufficient premises, and sought for the solution of a general question in the particular circumstances that passed under their own limited observation; while the theorists, or as it has become the fashion to call them, the "bullionists," have erred, because they have made little or no allowance for disturbing influences, the operation of which has been palpable to every man actually engaged in commercial pursuits. By this means the "practical men" have been confirmed in their total disbelief of the doctrines put forth by the "bullionists," and these, on the other hand, seeing that what they hold to be the most incontrovertible truths are set at nought by their opponents, may have been rendered unwilling to enter anew upon their inquiries, with the view of de-

termining the modes and degrees in which their abstract principles are liable to disturbance through the circumstances insisted on—perhaps too urgently—by their opponents. It would be out of place in this work, if even the author were competent to the task, to attempt to settle this much controverted question: the foregoing remarks seem necessary, however, in order to account in some degree for the fact, that on a point which involves such important consequences, and where for want of its being settled, commercial communities are periodically visited with wide-spreading ruin, so little advance has hitherto been made towards reducing the subject of currency to scientific rules and principles. On each occasion when the money-market has been subjected to one of these paroxysms, clever men have put themselves forward to explain the causes and to point out how the evil may in future be avoided; and to those who will be at the pains to examine the arguments and assertions used on both sides of the controversy, it must be curious to observe how complete an identity of opinion and almost of expression there is between the writers who have advocated the same side of the question at different periods, so that the pamphlets put forth in 1811 or in 1826 would be found to embody all the principal arguments, and to have reference to the same set of circumstances, as have formed the staple of the pamphlets written in 1837. This affords, at least, *primâ facie* evidence that the subject has been exhausted as far as reasoning is applicable, and that our want of agreement in regard to it may be the effect of prejudice which withholds either party from giving due weight to the facts and arguments adduced by its opponents.

The measure adopted in 1797 of restricting the Bank of England from paying its notes in specie, while it continued in operation, placed the currency of this coun-

try under circumstances wholly dissimilar to those that have attended it either before or since. The peculiar operation of these circumstances was besides considerably exaggerated by the events of the war, and by the peculiar character given to that war during the seven years that preceded the peace of Paris. For these reasons, it is difficult to make the condition of the currency as marked by the price of gold and the rate of the foreign exchanges at that time, the sole test of the soundness of the practice pursued by those who managed and controlled the issue of our paper currency. During the greater part of the period alluded to, more obstacles were opposed to the prosecution of our foreign trade than were ever at any other time put in action. Our goods were excluded from almost every port on the continent of Europe, and the difficulties that attended the importation of goods from abroad were such as materially to enhance the cost of nearly every article brought here for consumption. At the same time the demand for some kinds of foreign productions was increased by the purchases of warlike stores on the part of government, and which purchases were necessarily made without reference to prices. As an instance of this, hemp may be mentioned. In 1793, just before the breaking out of the war, the price had been 22*l.* per ton; it advanced progressively between that time and the peace of Amiens to 86*l.* per ton, but in 1802 fell to 32*l.* per ton. On the renewal of hostilities the price again advanced, and in 1808 and 1809 reached 118*l.* per ton. In 1815, after the second overthrow of Napoleon, the price fell to 34*l.*, and has since gone considerably below that rate. On the other hand, all those descriptions of goods which were produced by us, or which necessarily came here from our colonies or elsewhere, in quantities beyond our own wants, were greatly depressed in price. At the same

time the prices on the continent of the goods so abundant and so depressed in our markets were exorbitantly high. Gold and silver were the only articles of merchandise which could be safely taken in exchange for the goods of which we were purchasers from the continent, and the vessels in which those were brought returned from our ports in ballast, while the prices of colonial produce and British manufactured goods were such in the respective markets as would have rendered their introduction into continental ports profitable to a most exaggerated degree. These circumstances, acting in conjunction with the reasonable, perhaps unavoidable, tendency of the Bank Restriction Act, under which the directors of that establishment were relieved from the dangers that would otherwise have attended any departure from prudence in the management of its issues, caused such an enhancement of the prices of the precious metals when measured by the paper currency, as forced all our metallic money out of circulation. In times of war, when armies are to be kept in motion, gold especially is greatly in requisition. The difference in value of Bank of England notes and gold estimated at the Mint price during the years from 1803 to 1808 was no more than 2*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.* per cent. In the seven following years, that excess in value of gold was raised in the following degrees:—

1809 ..	£14	7	7	per cent.	1813 ..	£29	4	½	per cent.
1810 ..	8	7	8	,,	1814 ..	14	7	7	,,
1811 ..	20	2	7	,,	1815 ..	13	9	6	,,
1812 ..	25	16	8	,,					

The fall in the price of gold which occurred in 1814 was brought about by a reversal of the circumstances that have been explained above. Trade again flowed through its natural channels; we found anxious customers for goods with which our warehouses had been overloaded; prices which for those goods had been ruinously

depressed rose greatly and rapidly; our exports became suddenly so much greater than our imports, that gold flowed back into this country with greater rapidity than it had previously left us; and if at this time the currency had been managed with the smallest approach to prudence and ability, the prices of gold and bank-notes might have been brought into agreement without producing any of those commercial disasters which have usually attended such an adjustment. The calculations just given are founded upon the prices of gold in the month of August in each year. In December, 1814, the influx of gold had brought down its price to 4*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* per ounce, or 9*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.* per cent. above the Mint price, although the issues of the Bank of England had been increased from 23,844,050*l.*, the amount in circulation at the end of 1813, when gold was 5*l.* 10*s.* per ounce, or 29*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.* per cent. above the Mint price, to 28,232,730*l.* Is it possible to doubt, with these figures before us, that if the directors of the Bank had contented themselves with maintaining their circulation even at the high level of December, 1813, the price of the precious metals would have fallen to the level of our Mint price, and that the gold and silver that had flowed into our coffers would have remained in circulation without our being called upon to undergo the difficulties and losses which accompanied the resumption of specie payments when that measure could be no longer deferred?

A different course was followed. The government having large financial operations to make in winding up the accounts of the war, thought it most profitable to effect those operations in a redundant paper currency; the Bank Restriction Act was renewed from time to time to the great profit of that establishment, but to the manifest disadvantage of all other classes: an opportunity,

the best that could possibly have been hoped for whereby to extricate ourselves from a false and dangerous position, was allowed to escape unimproved, and the gold which had sought our shores was again driven away by a redundant inconvertible paper currency. The conduct of the Bank of England in those days exhibited a most lamentable want of intelligence. Being aware of the approach of the time at which the restriction which had been so profitable must cease, the directors of that establishment made a large provision of bullion, which, as it could not be demanded in payment for their notes, remained in their coffers uninfluenced by the rate of foreign exchanges or the market price of gold. Had this provision been accompanied by a corresponding diminution of their issues, the directors might safely have pursued the course which they afterwards unsuccessfully adopted in anticipation of the termination of their Restriction Act; but no such prudence was allowed to influence their conduct, and when in April and September, 1817, notices were given to pay off in specie, first the notes in circulation dated prior to 1816, and afterwards those issued before 1817, the amount of the circulation was unusually large, and the price of gold fully 3 per cent. above that of bank-notes. Under these circumstances, the gold was withdrawn from the Bank coffers, so that in August, 1819, they were nearly exhausted, and it was necessary to hurry through Parliament an Act restricting the directors from acting any further in conformity with the notices they had given.

In the same year (1819), the Act, commonly known as Mr. Peel's Act, was passed, which provided for the gradual resumption of specie payments. Under the provisions of this law, the Bank restriction was continued until February, 1820, from which time till October

in the same year, the public was entitled to demand payment of notes in bullion at the rate of 4*l.* 1*s.* per ounce. From October, 1820, to May, 1821, payment might be demanded in bullion at the rate of 3*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* per ounce; from May, 1821, to May, 1823, *bullion* might be demanded at the Mint price of 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* per ounce; and from the last-mentioned date, the current gold coin of the realm might be demanded. The provisions of this Act as regarded the periods named, were anticipated, and on the 1st of May, 1821, the Bank had placed itself in the position to meet all of its outstanding engagements that should be demanded in specie.

Perhaps there never was in the whole history of legislation in this country any measure of internal policy which has occasioned such warm and long-continued controversy as this Act for the resumption of specie payments. Although eighteen years have elapsed since it was passed, and sixteen years since it came into full operation, the measure is still assailed with virulence by many who attribute to it every cloud which during all that time has obscured the commercial horizon, and hitherto scarcely any Session has been suffered to pass without some attempt having been made to induce the Legislature to consent to its repeal. Mr. Peel's Bill in reality did nothing more than establish certain steps or gradations through which we should pass in order to arrive at that which had always been contemplated and declared to be the settled purpose of the Legislature, and at what in fact would have become law by the simple efflux of the time fixed for the purpose in the Bank Restriction Acts.

The most fitting and best time for recurring to a legitimate and wholesome condition of the currency was, as we have seen, suffered to go by unimproved, but it is not

therefore to be contended that our medium of exchange was for ever after to be inconvertible into that which it professed to represent; this is a proposition which no one who is entitled to be heard with attention upon this subject ever ventured to put forth. It has always been acknowledged, on all hands, that at some period or other it would be proper to employ a metallic currency, or that which is equivalent to it, paper convertible into coin or bullion at the pleasure of the holder. The question of the return to cash payments was always considered to be one of time. Whether, now that the remedy has been applied, and that, choosing to attribute to its operation every sinister effect that has since attended our commercial progress, the advocates who would have continued the restriction are disposed to adopt the use of inconvertible paper as a permanent measure, is what few among those advocates would be willing to avow, although it is difficult upon any other ground to reconcile their subsequent proceedings with common sense. Why this, the richest country in the world, should be unable to effect that simplicity, in regard to its currency, which is found to be of easy attainment by the poorest states, is an enigma very difficult of solution. Nothing is more common than to hear it asserted by the advocates for an inconvertible currency, that if the statesmen and economists, by whom the return to cash payments was advocated in 1819, could have foreseen the consequences which are attributed—whether justly or not, is the question—to that measure, they would have forborne to give to it the sanction of their approval. In particular, Mr. David Ricardo has been repeatedly held up as having recanted the opinion expressed by him, that the fall in prices to be brought about by returning to a metallic standard would be no more than the difference between

the market and the Mint prices of gold, which at the passing of Mr. Peel's Bill did not exceed 4 per cent. There is, in truth, no warrant whatever for this assertion, which like many other figments has been repeated until it has acquired the authority of truth. Mr. Ricardo never did assert, and never could have asserted, that when we should return to specie payments prices would never fall more than 4 per cent. below their level at the time the bill was under discussion. It would have been as reasonable to affirm, that if, instead of returning to the old standard price of gold, 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* per ounce, the Legislature had fixed the standard at the actual market price of the time, no fluctuation in prices would ever have occurred in future. Between June 1833, and August 1836, there was a progressive rise in the market value of goods amounting, in the whole, to 35 per cent., and during all that time we were acting with a currency based upon gold at the same standard. Will it be contended that if during the same period our currency had consisted of inconvertible paper promises, a like fluctuation in prices would have been impossible? Is it not, on the contrary, probable that the fluctuation would have been much more violent? It is precisely when prices are low that the advocates of extended issues of paper money are the most clamorous, their single object being to enhance the nominal value of their goods. They do not, or will not see, that it is only during the period in which the advance is going forward they can experience the advantages which they anticipate. When the rise shall have fully taken place, and prices shall have adjusted themselves, there will no longer be any benefit; but, on the other hand, there will be considerable and constant danger of a fall, which may be occasioned by various circumstances that would be inoperative under a

different condition of things. In truth there is no safety from commercial disasters; in other words, there can be no permanent prosperity for the trading and producing classes, but in low and moderate, and therefore steady, prices.

It is now generally held that the commercial crisis or "panic," as it is usually called, which occurred towards the end of 1825, was brought on by the conjoint operations of the Government and the Bank of England. It was the object of the Government when peace was fully established, to make money abundant, and consequently cheap, in order to carry through various arrangements whereby the permanent charge upon the public income might be lessened. By the means adopted to this end, the market rate of interest was so far reduced at the beginning of 1822, that the 5 per Cent. Annuities were raised to 6 or 8 per cent. above par, under which circumstances more than 140,000,000*l.* of that stock was converted into an annuity at 4 per cent., on terms by which the annual charge to the public was reduced by 1,122,000*l.* In 1824 the Chancellor of the Exchequer was enabled to effect a further saving of 380,000*l.* per annum, by the conversion of 76,000,000*l.* of 4 per cent. into 3½ per Cent. Annuities.

If the fall in the rate of interest by which the Minister was enabled to effect those operations had occurred through natural causes, there could be no question as to the propriety of the step, but brought about as they were by means of the unnatural and forced extension of Bank issues, it is hardly to be doubted that the mischief resulting from that extension has been productive of more loss to various classes of the community than can have been compensated to the nation at large by the saving. With a reckless disregard of consequences, to a degree

which can be attributed only to want of knowledge, the Directors of the Bank of England forced their paper into circulation, by proffering facilities to all classes of the community. Money was lent upon the mortgage of land and upon the deposit of stock, in addition to liberal advances to commercial men, through the more legitimate channels of issue, and the directors, at the same time, permanently crippled their means of controlling the currency by investing a large proportion of their issues in the purchase of an annuity for a term of years, known as the Dead Weight Annuity, an investment which must always be least marketable at those periods when it would be most desirable that the Bank should have all its resources at command. By these means speculation was excited, the business transactions of the country were multiplied unnaturally, and by the general rise of prices thus occasioned, our markets became overstocked with foreign produce, while the export trade was checked; the quantity of mercantile paper thrown into circulation aggravated the evil.

Between the beginning of 1822 and the month of April 1825, the Bank had increased its circulation to the extent of four millions. At the latter date it was possessed of bullion and coin to the value of ten millions, but, from that period to the following November, the drain upon its coffers was so rapid that no more than 1,300,000*l.* of that amount remained. Alarmed at this unequivocal indication, the directors suddenly diminished the circulation to the extent of 3,500,000*l.*: a general feeling of distrust then took the place of undue confidence, which had previously pervaded the whole country; the notes of country bankers were returned upon them to such a degree that great numbers failed; a run upon several London bankers was followed by the stoppage of

some of those establishments; commercial distress of the most frightful description ensued; and such was the want of confidence, that the wealthiest merchants were driven to make heavy sacrifices of property in order to provide for their immediate engagements. To use the memorable expression of Mr. Huskisson, "the country was within twenty-four hours of a state of barter." In this state of things there was no longer any evil to be apprehended from increasing the paper circulation, and the Bank Directors came forward with promptitude and liberality to the assistance of the trading classes, by lending money upon almost every description of property that could be offered, and by discounting bills without adhering to those rules by which they have ordinarily been guided in conducting this part of their business. Between the 3rd of November and the 29th of December the amount of mercantile bills under discount at the Bank of England was increased from four millions to fifteen millions; the number of bills discounted on one particular day having been four thousand two hundred. The efforts thus made were assisted by a circumstance purely accidental. A box containing one-pound notes which had been overlooked at the time when the Bank called in all its notes under ve pounds, was discovered at the lucky moment, and n the opinion of Mr. Harman, one of the directors, the timely issue of these notes "worked wonders—it saved the credit of the country." On the 3rd of December 1825, the amount of Bank of England notes in circulation had been only 17,477,000*l.*; but on the 31st of that month was increased, by the means here mentioned, to 25,700,000*l.* This great increase was rendered necessary in order to replace the notes of country bankers that had been suddenly withdrawn from circulation, and to counteract the tendency

to hoarding always indulged by the timid in periods of embarrassment; it was consequently not followed by any undue rise of prices, which had been suddenly thrown down in the previous convulsion; the foreign exchanges again turned in our favour, and the gold which, by the previous mismanagement, had been forced abroad, again came back. The value of coin and bullion in the Bank in the last weeks of February, May, August, and November 1825, respectively, was, 2,300,000*l.*, 4,300,000*l.*, 6,600,000*l.*, and 8,900,000*l.*; in the February following it amounted to 10,000,000*l.* The notes of the Bank in circulation in the same weeks amounted to—

£24,900,000 . .	February, 1826.
21,900,000 . .	May, „
21,300,000 . .	August, „
19,900,000 . .	November, „

At the close of 1826 the currency was therefore once more restored to an appearance of soundness.

At the time of its occurrence this commercial crisis was attributed by many persons to the increase of paper money, put into circulation by the country banks; and in the parliamentary inquiries that followed, the principal object aimed at was the regulation of private banks of issue. The establishment by the Bank of England of branches in different parts of England was suggested and recommended to that establishment by Lord Liverpool, then at the head of the government, as a means of controlling the issues of private bankers, and in part also of substituting a more secure description of paper for that which circulated throughout the country. The principal aim of parliament and the government, on that occasion, was not so much the regulation of the currency, by means which would prevent the recurrence of the evils resulting from over issues, as it was to pro-

vide for the ultimate security of the holders of notes. They committed the mistake too commonly made of confounding currency with solvency, and of imagining that if the issuers of notes had sufficient capital to meet, at some time or other, the whole of their engagements, no other evil was to be apprehended.

At the same time provision was made by Parliament for the establishing of joint-stock banks which should be banks of issue; but this being considered an invasion of the privileges of the Bank of England—in favour of which establishment no other bank having more than six partners was thought to be entitled legally to issue notes—a compromise was made with that establishment, and joint-stock banks of issue were not permitted to carry on their business nearer to London than sixty-five miles The correctness of this impression concerning the law of banking has since been doubted, and has been made the subject of litigation in a cause which has not yet been finally decided.

If the views of the Legislature had been directed to produce a system by means of which a perfect control over the currency would be secured, a more unlikely method of attaining that object than the establishment of joint-stock banks could hardly be imagined. By their constitution, these establishments would naturally stand high in the public estimation. With large paid-up capitals and a numerous list of partners, the more ostensible of whom were usually men of property and consideration, while all were answerable for the debts of the company to the full amount of their fortunes, the public would take their paper with perfect confidence, and as considerable local influence would be always exerted in their favour, the case must be extreme indeed which would bring on a run against them. In fact, the greater

the degree of reputation and credit such banks enjoy, the greater is the danger of their contributing to unsettle the currency. It has been shown by Colonel Torrens,* that except these banks act in concert with the Bank of England, their influence could never be severely felt, for otherwise any over-issues on their part would speedily be returned upon them; but this would not be the case when the issues of the Bank of England should also be in excess, so that their mismanagement would be felt only when it would act in aggravation of the mischief caused by the great regulator of the currency.

At the time when encouragement was given to the formation of joint-stock banks, Parliament took measures for withdrawing from circulation all notes of a lower denomination than 5*l.*; the granting of stamps for smaller notes was immediately stopped, and from the 5th of April, 1829, it was declared illegal for any banker to issue such. The policy of this measure met at the time with general concurrence, and although it has since been clamorously impugned, both in and out of Parliament, the number of those who question its propriety has always been small.

* Letter to Lord Melbourne.

Statement of the Number of Joint-Stock Banks established in England, Scotland, and Ireland, to the end of 1836, under the Act 7 Geo. IV., cap. 46; with the Date of the Commencement of each Bank, the Number of Places in which its Business is carried on, and the Number of its Partners:—

Date.	Name of Bank.	Number of Places in which its business is carried on.	Number of Partners.
	ENGLAND.		
June 1826	Bristol Old Bank	1	8
October 1826	Lancaster Banking Company	3	127
,,	Stuckey's Banking Company (Bristol)	23	34
March 1827	Norfolk and Norwich Joint-Stock Banking Company	9	26
June 1827	Huddersfield Banking Company	3	335
July 1827	Bradford Banking Company	1	173
Nov. 1827	Leith Banking Company	1	9
March 1829	Bank of Manchester	4	552
,,	Cumberland Union Banking Company	6	52
May 1829	Whitehaven Joint-Stock Banking Company	2	236
August 1829	Leicestershire Banking Company	4	101
Sept. 1829	Birmingham Banking Company	1	311
Nov. 1829	Halifax Joint-Stock Banking Company	1	178
,,	Manchester and Liverpool District Bank	23	1054
March 1830	York City and County Banking Company	7	267
April 1831	Bank of Liverpool	1	441
June 1831	Gloucestershire Banking Company	13	265
,,	Sheffield Banking Company	2	225
Sept. 1831	Knaresborough and Claro Banking Company	11	160
Dec. 1831	Darlington District Joint-Stock Banking Company	16	247
,,	Devon & Cornwall Banking Company	12	146
,,	Stamford and Spalding Joint-Stock Banking Company	13	85
,,	Wolverhampton and Staffordshire Banking Company	1	238
Jan. 1832	Barnsley Banking Company	1	118
August 1832	Bank of Birmingham	1	227
Oct. 1832	Wakefield Banking Company	1	192
Nov. 1832	Leeds Banking Company	1	451
,,	North of England Joint-Stock Banking Company	9	571
Dec. 1832	Liverpool Commercial Banking Company	1	263
,,	Mirfield and Huddersfield Banking Company	3	263
Feb. 1833	Bradford Commercial Banking Company	1	160
April 1833	York Union Banking Company	11	277
June 1833	Bank of Westmoreland	2	154

Date.	Name of Bank.	Number of Places in which its business is carried on.	Number of Partners.
June 1833 .	Saddleworth Banking Company . .	3	114
August 1833 .	Lincoln & Lindsey Banking Company	14	230
Nov. 1833 .	Hull Banking Company	16	247
Dec. 1833 .	Chesterfield and North Derbyshire Banking Company	1	98
,,	Derby and Derbyshire Banking Company	3	204
,,	Dudley and West Bromwich Banking Company	2	190
,,	National Provincial Bank of England	40	487
March 1834 .	Northern & Central Bank of England.	40	1204
April 1834 .	Hampshire Banking Company . .	4	141
,,	Nottingham and Nottinghamshire Banking Company	4	272
,,	Stourbridge and Kidderminster Banking Company	10	223
July 1834 .	Commercial Bank of England . .	19	444
,,	Yorkshire District Bank	19	680
Sept. 1834 .	Warwick and Leamington Banking Company	6	122
Nov. 1834 .	Holywell Bank (North Wales) . .	2	7
Dec. 1834 .	Gloucester County and City Bank .	1	23
,,	West of England and South Wales District Bank	20	469
Feb. 1835 .	Bank of South Wales	1	7
May 1835 .	Leamington Bank	1	157
,,	Union Bank of Liverpool	1	323
August 1835 .	Bank of Walsall	2	112
,,	Leamington Priors and Warwickshire Bank	5	135
Nov. 1835 .	Leeds and West Riding Banking Company	2	161
,,	Lichfield and Tamworth Banking Company	3	98
,,	North Wilts Banking Company . .	9	152
Dec. 1835 .	Coventry and Warwickshire Banking Company	1	261
1836.			
Jan. 11th .	Wilts and Dorset Banking Company.	25	485
Feb. 27th .	East of England Bank	19	534
March 15th .	Pare's Leicestershire Banking Company, or the Leicestershire Union Banking Company	4	49
,, 22nd .	Liverpool Tradesmen's Bank . . .	1	519
April 30th .	North and South Wales Bank . .	22	608
,, ,, .	Royal Bank of Liverpool	1	214
May 3rd .	Bank of Stockport	1	364
,, 6th .	Union Bank of Manchester . . .	1	605
,, 12th .	Coventry Union Banking Company .	3	181
,, ,,	Liverpool United Trades Bank . .	1	319
,, 13th .	Northamptonshire Banking Company	6	233
,, 19th .	Cheltenham & Gloucestershire Bank	2	143

Date.	Name of Bank.	Number of Places in which its business is carried on.	Number of Partners.
May 20th	Sheffield and Hallamshire Banking Company	1	808
,, 23rd	Northamptonshire Union Bank	3	511
,, ,,	Northumberland and Durham District Banking Company	6	464
,, 25th	South Lancashire Bank	1	753
,, 27th	Shropshire Banking Company	4	282
,, 30th	Bolton Joint-Stock Banking Company	1	163
June 14th	Bury Banking Company	1	104
,, 15th	Manchester and Salford Bank	1	235
,, 18th	Ashton, Stalybridge, Hyde, and Glossop Bank	1	328
,, 21st	Halifax Commercial Banking Company	2	169
,, ,,	Leeds Commercial Banking Company	1	223
,, 25th	Sheffield and Rotherham Joint-Stock Banking Company	3	269
,, 27th	Newcastle-upon-Tyne Joint-Stock Banking Company	1	65
,, 28th	Liverpool Borough Bank	1	393
,, 29th	Halifax and Huddersfield Union Banking Company	2	406
July 4th	Birmingham Town and District Banking Company	1	598
,, 11th	Newcastle, Shields, and Sunderland Union Joint-Stock Banking Company	10	468
,, 12th	Moore and Robinson's Nottinghamshire Banking Company	1	152
,, 16th	Newcastle Commercial Banking Company	1	338
,, 27th	Yorkshire Agricultural and Commercial Banking Company	27	756
,, 28th	Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire Banking Company	10	298
August 1st	County of Gloucester Bank	7	295
,, 4th	Helston Banking Company	1	14
,, ,,	Sunderland Joint-Stock Banking Company	1	150
,, 5th	Herefordshire Banking Company	10	200
,, 18th	Birmingham and Midland Bank	1	277
,, 31st	Bilston District Banking Company	1	150
Sept. 1st	Western District Banking Company	17	322
,, 8th	Glamorganshire Banking Company	2	100
,, 17th	Bury & Heywood Banking Company	2	48
,, 30th	Oldham Banking Company	1	64
October 8th	Carlisle and Cumberland Banking Company	2	224
Dec. 3rd	Central Bank of Liverpool	1	54
,, 16th	Imperial Bank of England	6	643
,, 30th	Swaledale and Wensleydale Banking Company	8	224

Date.	Name of Bank.	Number of Places in which its business is carried on.	Number of Partners.
	SCOTLAND.		
1834	The Central Bank of Scotland . .	7	468
1836	The Northern Bank of Scotland . .	63	834
	IRELAND.		
Dec. 1824	Northern Banking Company . . .	10	208
,, 1825	Hibernian Joint-Stock Banking Company	1	225
August 1825	Provincial Bank of Ireland . . .	33	644
,, 1826	Belfast Banking Company . . .	10	292
Oct. 1834	Agricultural and Commercial Bank of Ireland	27	2170
Jan. 1835	National Bank of Ireland	20	250
August 1835	Limerick National Bank of Ireland .	3	523
1836	The Ulster Banking Company . .	4	835
,,	The Clonmel National Bank of Ireland	3	466
,,	The Carrick-on-Suir National Bank of Ireland	1	390
,,	The Waterford National Bank of Ireland	4	432
,,	The Wexford and Enniscorthy Bank of Ireland	2	393
,,	The Tipperary National Bank of Ireland	1	429
,,	The Tralee National Bank of Ireland	1	411
,,	*The Royal Bank of Ireland . . .	..	304

In what has been here said, concerning the establishing of joint-stock banks as substitutes for other banks of issue, which could offer less satisfactory security for the amount of their engagements, it is by no means intended to question that they present, in that respect, great advantages to the public. But it may well be doubted, whether those advantages are in all respects such as were in contemplation at the time of their formation. The number of joint-stock banks established in and since 1826, is 119, with 37,202 partners, and having 670 branches acting in conjunction with them. Some of

* The last-named establishment is not a bank of issue, and its partners are not by law required to be registered in the Stamp-Office. It is included in the return as a certificate has been obtained for it.

these are not new establishments, but extensions of private banks previously in operation; others of them do not issue their own notes, but circulate the notes of the Bank of England, under an agreement with that corporation, which gives to them certain facilities in the way of discounts. This is a fact well known, and one which has been stated in evidence before parliamentary committees; but it is not so well known, that, in making these arrangements, the Bank of England does not merely give permission to the other parties to send bills for discount up to a certain sum, but stipulates that the sum so required shall always reach at least to that amount; providing thus, for the extension of the issue of its own paper, whatever may be the wants of the commercial world, or the rates of the foreign exchanges. It is not with a very good grace that the Bank Directors, while thus acting, complain of the excessive issues of other joint-stock associations, their rivals in the country districts. There is no doubt that a competition of this kind is likely to have an injurious effect, and that the spirit of competition renders all parties less prudent than they might otherwise be in acting upon those indications which should govern the amount of the circulation. In the event of that circulation proving redundant, the adoption of a prudent course by one or more establishments, in contracting their issues, might only offer inducements to others to endeavour to turn that course to their own peculiar advantage, by filling up the void that would be thus occasioned. The advantage to the country of confining to one establishment the power of issuing paper-money has lately been very strongly insisted on by a principal advocate and apologist of the Bank of England. In his zeal for the interests of the establishment with which he is connected that gentleman has not allowed

himself to express a doubt as to the body which shall be intrusted with so important a function. The one bank of issue in his estimation is, without doubt, to be the joint-stock association with which he is connected. There is, however, a third alternative, which has been ably advocated by the late Mr. Ricardo,* and more recently by Mr. Clay,† Colonel Torrens,‡ and Mr. S. Ricardo §—that of the establishment of a National Bank, "under the management of competent functionaries, qualified by the possession, not of Bank Stock, but of economical science; appointed, not by the holders of Bank Stock, but by the Government; responsible, not to their co-proprietors, but to Parliament; and having for their first object and primary duty the protection, not of their own corporate property, but of the general interest of the nation." ||

It is not necessary to enlarge, in these pages, upon the advantages that might be derived by the country from the adoption of the proposal here mentioned. Those persons who are alive to the importance of the subject will not satisfy themselves with any second-hand arguments, but will of course refer to works in which the establishment of a National Bank is advocated by men, whose thorough acquaintance with the subject, in all its bearings, must be universally acknowledged. It may be

* Plan for the Establishment of a National Bank, by the late David Ricardo, Esq., M.P. 1824.

† Speech, on moving for a Committee on Joint-Stock Banks, with Reflections, &c., by W. Clay, Esq., M.P. 1836.

‡ Letter to Lord Melbourne, on the recent Derangement in the Money Market, and on Bank Reform, by R. Torrens, Esq., 1837.

§ A National Bank the remedy for the evils attendant upon our present system of Paper Currency, by Samson Ricardo, Esq. 1838.

|| Torrens's Letter; 2nd Edition, page 64.

proper, however, to guard against misconception, as to the meaning attached to the title of National Bank. It is not meant, under this name, to advocate the establishment of a bank which shall be subject to the control of the minister of the day, which, on the credit of the country, shall issue notes *ad libitum* to meet the wants or wishes of the government, or whose paper shall be inconvertible, at the pleasure of the holder, into that which it professes to represent; but a bank, the managers of which, although appointed by the government, shall not be removable except by a vote of Parliament, upon proof of maladministration; who shall be obliged to buy or to sell bullion at certain fixed prices, which, while they would yield a small profit to the establishment, shall not hold out any inducement to speculative sales or purchases; and who shall be of ability to observe and to understand the symptoms of any approaching derangement in the currency, and to apply the necessary remedies. All experience has shown the mischief that results from the operations of banks of issue in connexion with executive governments, and the banking annals of our own country afford abundant proofs that no amount of ability employed in conducting the operations of a great joint-stock association will preserve the country from mismanagement, where there is any private interest or conflicting duty which tempts its managers to originate or to tolerate, and, it may be, to aggravate, the mischief.

The shock given to mercantile credit, and the losses encountered by commercial men, in 1825, were of a nature and to an extent not likely to be immediately forgotten. The lesson of prudence which they taught was enforced by the withdrawal of small notes from circulation, and for a considerable time speculation—at least in any extensive degree—was unseen. But it is the common effect of

long-continued security to beget imprudence. The years which followed the panic of 1825 were marked, as we have seen, by a progressive extension of our chief branches of industry; the operations of trade and manufactures were, with some fluctuations, accompanied by a degree of general prosperity which naturally engendered the desire for increasing them, and this desire being met, in the middle of 1833, by some relaxation in the currency, prices began to rise. The circulation of the Bank of England, which throughout 1832 had been, on the average, 18,139,000*l.*, was increased to 19,060,000*l.* in the first half of 1833, and to 19,201,000*l.* in the second half of that year; and this increase, taken in conjunction with the presumed extension of issues on the part of joint stock and private bankers—an extension which was rendered practicable only through the greater circulation of Bank of England notes—was quite sufficient to give that stimulus to commercial dealings which has been mentioned.

It is not necessary to explain at any length in what manner excessive issues of currency tend to raise the general prices of goods It may doubtless happen, through particular and counteracting circumstances, that the price of one or of a few articles may fall, notwithstanding such an excessive issue; and, on the other hand, it is equally true, that through increased demand, or its equivalent, a short supply, prices of some articles may rise even while the amount of currency in circulation is undergoing the process of contraction; but both theory and practice have alike rendered it certain that the rise or fall of prices generally depends upon the enlargement or contraction of the supply of that by which those prices are measured. In the words of the Report of the Bullion Committee of 1810—"An increase in the quantity of the local cur-

rency of a particular country will raise prices in that country exactly in the same manner as an increase in the general supply of precious metals raises prices all over the world." Many circumstances may arise to occasion the rise or fall in the prices of some kinds of goods, but a general alteration of prices can only be occasioned by alteration in the amount of circulating money. An increase in the quantity of specie, arising from the greater productiveness of the mines, would raise prices in all countries alike, and would therefore occasion no serious derangement, nor be followed by any revulsion; whereas, a rise that is occasioned by the undue extension of a local currency will be confined to the country in which it is issued, and must derange its commercial relations with foreign markets. It is therefore at all times an interesting and a valuable question to determine whether prices are actually rising or falling, or stationary; and to ascertain the degree of such rise or fall, as an indication of the state of the currency. A rise or fall thus caused will generally—perhaps always—precede a variation in the foreign exchanges; and if ascertained, and a timely remedy were applied, the evil might be corrected before it could reach a point that would be indicated by any such disturbance of the foreign trade as would affect the rates of exchange. This truth has long been felt and acknowledged; but it has at the same time been held impossible to determine, with the necessary degree of accuracy, whether any, and what degree of fluctuation is shown by the prices of commodities generally. The disturbing causes above alluded to, when affecting articles with which the inquirer is more particularly conversant, may, unless the investigation is extended, give an impression contrary to the fact. With regard to this objection, it may be said that it is only by a practical acquaintance

with all the circumstances by which markets are temporarily governed, that a proper allowance can be made for every disturbing cause. With the possession of the necessary amount of practical knowledge, the difficulty of course ceases; but even without it, if we see that one kind or a few kinds of goods exhibit a tendency in regard to price different from that exhibited by the great bulk of articles, it must be easy for any one to make such inquiries into the facts as will qualify him to correct the discrepancy they might occasion, or to show the propriety of rejecting, from among the list of articles subjected to examination, those which from extraneous causes would interfere with the correctness of the calculation. There is, however, another difficulty to be surmounted before the degree of fluctuation in prices generally can be correctly ascertained, which is this:—Some articles of merchandise are sold, and their prices are quoted by the pound or gallon, and others are quoted by the hundredweight or ton, or by the pipe, while the prices upon which the calculations of rise or fall must be made vary from a few pence for some articles to more than one hundred pounds for others. How, then, it has been asked, can any comparison be made, where the elements or data for that comparison exhibit such violent discrepancies? This difficulty will be overcome by the very simple expedient of reducing to one common element the price of every separate article in a long list of articles, whether that price is estimated by pence or by pounds, and then calculating the fluctuating price of each, up or down, and expressing it in decimal proportions. In this manner the rise or fall of a halfpenny in the price of a pound of pepper, quoted at five pence, is made to indicate as great a rise or fall, and to exercise as great an influence in the scale, as a rise or fall of 5*s.* in a quarter of linseed, quoted at 50*s.*, or of 10*l.* in a ton

of copper, quoted at 100*l.* In each of these cases, the index price, whether it is 5*d.*, 50*s.*, or 100*l.*, being expressed by unity, or 1·0000, the supposed variations, if in advance, would in each case be expressed by the figures 1·1000—and if in reduction, by 0·900. Upon this principle a table has been constructed, taking for its basis or index the prices existing in the first week of January, 1833, and exhibiting at the beginning of every subsequent month the average fluctuations that have occurred in the prices of each one of 50 articles which comprise the principal kinds of goods that enter into foreign commerce. The sum of all these prices, thus ascertained and expressed to four places of decimals, when divided by the number of articles in the list, will exhibit the mean variation in the aggregate of prices from month to month. Such a table, constructed by any person possessing a moderate acquaintance with the general state of trade, will, it is thought, exhibit the variations of prices with as near an approach to accuracy as the subject admits, and the result will be altogether free from any of those specious fallacies which are often found to lurk at the bottom of speculative investigations.

In the construction of this table it was desirable to make choice of a period whence to commence the calculations, in which prices were considered to be at or near their natural level, and in which the mercantile community in this kingdom were believed to be principally engaged in their regular and legitimate business; a period, in fact, which should be free from any undue depression on the one hand, and without the excitement of speculation on the other. With this view, and also because it would embrace a time sufficiently long for showing the possible utility of such calculations, without too far multiplying the labour, the beginning of 1833 was chosen. It will be seen, on inspection of the table

hereafter inserted (pages 236-7), that in one respect at least the choice of this period has been judicious. During the six months by which it was immediately followed, there may be said to have been no fluctuation in prices, but in the month of July there occurred a sudden rise of $3\frac{3}{5}$ per cent., which was increased to 7 per cent. in August, and to 10 per cent. in September; from which time prices were again remarkably steady, at that higher level, until the middle of the following year. Another rapid advance was then experienced, which continued until February, 1835, when prices had reached to 16 per cent. above the index price of January, 1833. At this further advance there was, again, considerable steadiness for six months, when a fresh impulse was given, which carried the average price rapidly upward, with an unvaried progression, until August, 1836. It will be seen that the average was then very nearly 35 per cent. higher than in the beginning of 1833. The measures adopted by the Bank of England in July and September, 1836, of raising the rate of their discounts from 4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ and then to 5 per cent., and further of throwing discredit upon a class of mercantile bills which at that time represented a very large part of the floating commercial engagements of the country, acted instantaneously upon the prices of goods, and a fall began which was more rapid than the rise which has been described.

An opinion has been expressed by a gentleman,* whose views upon such subjects are entitled to be received with great respect, that the abundance or scarcity of circulating money has little or no influence upon prices, but that these are regulated by the wants and capabilities of the great body of the consumers, who cannot at any time be expected to

* Mr. Thomas Tooke.

use more of any articles because they may have a greater facility in raising money for commercial purposes. In support of this position it is urged that, while prices generally were advancing in the degree that has been shown, grain, which in respect of the amount of money involved in buying and selling it, is perhaps of more importance than all the other articles that together form the sum of our commercial dealings, was as constantly and regularly falling in price. There can be no doubt of the fact being as here stated; but there cannot, on the other hand, be any doubt that this fall in the price of the principal article of food was the effect of natural causes, such as have already been adverted to above, and in a former Section of this work; and which causes could not fail to have produced their natural effect in driving down the price, unless checked by such an issue of paper-money as could only have been kept in circulation under a system of restriction from specie payments. The objection raised by the accomplished author of the *Thoughts and Details on High and Low Prices* is no doubt true in the long run, where no bank restriction is allowed to interfere. It is no doubt true that, in the end, the prices of all commodities are governed by the wants and capabilities of the consumers, taken in conjunction with the cost of production. But this is not the question at issue. That question is, whether, as a consequence—a natural and almost a necessary consequence—of any excessive amount of currency, a speculative demand for goods is not created, one of the evils attendant upon which is, that it cannot be sustained, but, when the immediate cause through which it was produced is withdrawn, gives place to a revulsion? Owing to the stimulus given to production, and the check offered to consumption—both of which are necessary consequences of high prices—that

revulsion, when it arrives, finds us with glutted markets, and with a mass of commercial engagements greater than the ordinary wants of trade should occasion: the consequences of which state of things it cannot be necessary to describe. The fact adduced, that, while the prices of imported articles have risen, grain became cheaper in a greater ratio, may be considered, under our present system of corn-laws, as one cause of that general enhancement of prices. Owing to the custom which prevails in our grain markets of making sales at a short period of credit, a smaller sum of currency is needed for carrying on the trade in corn than would be required for the purchase and sale of an equal value of foreign goods, where longer credits are usually given. The amount of money engaged in the corn-trade must, however, be exceedingly great, so that any material fall in the price of corn must have an effect upon the currency equivalent to an increased emission of bank notes.* If our foreign corn-trade were free, this consequence would not happen, because we should be preserved from those violent fluctuations in the prices of farming produce which now attend upon the vicissitudes of seasons. A deficiency in the harvest always produces a more than equivalent rise in the price of farming produce; so that, on the supposition of 1000 quarters of wheat being required for the ordinary wants of the people, if the supply proved defi-

* It must also be borne in mind, that of the whole produce of grain, a portion, which has been variously estimated at from a half to two-thirds, is never brought to market for sale, but is consumed in the agricultural districts, and employed for seed. The proportion sold is, however, becoming greater every year, in consequence of the proportionately greater increase of the non-agricultural population, and the greater productiveness of the soil.

cient to the extent of 100 quarters, the remaining 900 would sell for a greater amount of money than that which would be received for 1000 quarters under the case first supposed; while the consequence of an increased production to the same degree would be so to depress prices, that 1100 quarters would not produce so great an amount as the 900 quarters in the one case, or the 1000 quarters in the other. It would be incorrect, therefore, to suppose that the reduction of price is compensated, either as regards the receipts of the growers, or as it affects the money value of the entire harvest, by the increase of quantity, which might to a great degree be the case if the trade were free and prices were kept more effectually than now at their natural level, by extending the markets whence to supply our deficiency, or where to send our superabundance.

Mr. Gregory King, in his computation of the land-product of England, given by Dr. Davenant, states that a defect in the harvest may raise the price of corn in the following proportions:—

Defect of	1	tenth,	raises the price	3	tenths.
,,	2	,,	,,	8	,,
,,	3	,,	,,	16	,,
,,	4	,,	,,	28	,,
,,	5	,,	,,	45	,,

	£.
If we adopt these proportions as the basis for our calculations, it will be found that 1000 quarters, when the supply is just equal to the wants of the consumers, will sell—the price being 50*s.* per quarter—for	2500
If the harvest should prove deficient one-tenth, the remaining nine-tenths, represented by 900 quarters, would sell, at 65*s.*, for	2925

A deficiency of one-fifth would leave 800 quarters, which, at 90*s.*, would produce	3600
A deficiency of three-tenths would leave 700 quarters, which, the price being advanced to 130*s.*, would produce	4550
A deficiency of four-tenths, leaving 600 quarters for sale at 190*s.*, would produce	5700
A deficiency of one-half would raise the price to 275*s.*, at which rate 500 quarters would sell for	6875

No means have hitherto been devised for ascertaining the actual produce of corn in the country, and it is superfluous to say that the above computation can be at best only a reasonable estimate. Mr. Tooke is of opinion that it is not very wide of the truth, "from observation of the repeated occurrence of the fact, that the price of corn in this country has risen from 100 to 200 per cent. and upwards, when the utmost computed deficiency of the crops has not been more than between one-sixth and one-third of an average." On the other hand, we have lately seen, through the consecutive occurrence of three favourable harvests, in 1833, 1834, and 1835, that the price of wheat has fallen from 55*s.* 5*d.* to 36*s.* 0*d.* per quarter, although during the whole of those years every branch of industry throughout the country was in full activity, and all classes of the people were in full enjoyment of the means of living. It is to the circumstances that affect the labourers and artisans of the country that we must look for the causes that influence the greater or less consumption of corn. The classes who are more at ease in their circumstances subsist in a far greater degree upon more costly kinds of food, and do not consume more bread than ordinary, in years of abundance. This may not be the case with those who are in less comfortable circumstances; but with regard

to them, even, it is certain that, when bread is cheap, they do not increase their use of it so as to absorb a proportion of their earnings equal to that which they so expend in scarce or ordinary seasons, but employ a greater part of their wages in the purchase of comforts; and this consideration renders it clear why, as above stated, so large an amount of money is not paid for an increased as is paid for a diminished supply of this first necessary of life; and also why, in a time of scarcity, the mass of the people, being driven towards the more exclusive use of bread—which will still be the cheapest food upon which they can subsist—the demand for other articles of consumption and convenience will be lessened, and their prices consequently diminished.

So long as the present system of virtually excluding from our markets the farming produce of other countries is suffered to exist, the occurrence of a harvest of more than average productiveness should act as the signal to those who have the control over the currency, to be more particularly on their guard against the consequences of redundancy, which should be prevented by a timely lessening of the sum in circulation. This doctrine may not be very palatable to those who, depending upon the produce of the soil, may see, as its practical effect, only a further depression in the price of grain. On every occasion that has arisen since the return of the Bank to specie payments, when an abundant harvest has caused great depression in the prices of corn, it has been the fashion to attribute the consequent "agricultural distress" to a deficiency of circulating money, and a clamour has been raised against the law which prevents the issue in England of notes under 5*l*. If, on such occasions, the wish of these advocates for a greater abundance of paper-money had been gratified, there is but

little ground for believing that they would have really been benefited as they desired to be, at the expense of the remaining classes of the community, because the same system which tended to raise the price of what they had to sell, would equally have raised the prices of all they required to buy; and as the enhancement of prices would in all cases be principally the effect of speculative demand, there is reason for believing that speculators would not choose, as an object for purchase, an article which was known to be held in undue abundance, while other articles were to be found against which so strong an objection would not apply; and for this reason the rise in the prices of agricultural produce, if experienced at all, would be so in a less degree than the prices of other commodities, a result which would be highly detrimental to agriculturists.

If the suggestion that has been here thrown out is entitled to any consideration, it is clear that, to enable us to judge with correctness whether the currency be at any time redundant or otherwise, we require to ascertain other facts than that of the amount of bank notes in circulation. There is, perhaps, no single circumstance more pregnant with instruction on this subject than a general rise or fall of prices when viewed and adjusted in combination with local or temporary causes of disturbance. With this end in view it would be highly instructive if tables of prices were made and recorded, at short intervals, accompanied by remarks explanatory of any peculiarities which may be thought to offer disturbance to the correctness of their result. It is not meant by this to recommend a mere record of the prices of goods such as would be afforded by a collection of prices current, but a calculation conducted upon the plan already described, or some other that should be equivalent to it, and which would afford, on inspection,

a correct comparative view of the average fluctuations that should occur. Such tables would not be without benefit, even when they had been continued for only a few years; but when they should have been carried over a considerable period of time, and the results which they would present could be studied in conjunction with actual occurrences, we might be enabled to read the signs they would present, so as to secure ourselves, with certainty, from those alternations which now so frequently bring alarm and ruin to commercial men. The following table is offered as the commencement of such a series of calculations. The details would occupy a very considerable space, without yielding an adequate advantage, for which reason the results only are presented.

Table, showing the Amount of Bank Notes in Circulation, the Rates of Exchange with Hamburg and Paris, and the Comparative Prices of Wheat, and of fifty Articles of Commerce (including Wheat), at the beginning of each Month, from January, 1833, to December, 1837.

Month.	Bank of England Notes in circulation, according to the Average advertised in the London Gazette.	Country Bank Notes in circulation, as advertised in the London Gazette.	Bullion held by the Bank of England (agerage), as advertised in the London Gazette.	Exchange with Hamburg.	Exchange with Paris, Three Days' Sight.	Comparative Price of Wheat in England.	Comparative Price of 50 Articles in London.
	£.	£.	£				
1833-Jan....	17,912,000	..	8,983,000	13.14	25.95	1.0000	1.0000
Feb....	18,318,000	..	9,648,000	13 14¼	25.85	0.9800	1.0034
March.	18,731,000	..	9,949,000	13.15¼	25.90	0.9752	0.9999
April..	19,319,000	..	10,068,000	13.15½	25 90	0.9785	0.9995
May...	19,430,000	..	10,165,000	13.15	25.90	0.9892	0.9933
June ..	19,312,000	..	10,321,000	13.15	25.90	0.9907	0.9977
July...	19,254,000	..	10,673,000	13.15¼	25.85	0.9907	1.0360
August	19,526,000	..	11,005,000	13.13¾	25.75	1.0200	1.0717
Sept...	19,780,000	..	11,078,000	13.13¾	25 70	1.0215	1.0933
Oct....	19,824,000	..	10,905,000	13.11¾	25 50	1.0015	1.0951
Nov. ..	19,202,000	..	10,461,000	13.12¾	25.50	0.9644	1.0932
Dec....	18,659,000	..	10,134,000	13.11	25.55	0.9429	1.0863
1834-Jan....	18,216,000	10,152,104	9,948,000	13.10¾	25.40	0.9166	1.1094

Table, showing the Amount of Bank Notes in Circulation, the Rates of Exchange with Hamburg and Paris, &c.—(*concluded*).

Month.	Bank of England Notes in circulation, according to the Average advertised in the London Gazette.	Country Bank Notes in circulation, as advertised in the London Gazette.	Bullion held by the Bank of England (average), as advertised in the London Gazette.	Exchange with Hamburg.	Exchange with Paris, Three Days' Sight.	Comparative Price of Wheat in England.	Comparative Price of 50 Articles in London.
	£.	£.	£.				
Feb....	18,377,000	..	9,954,000	13.11	25.35	0.9073	1.0996
March.	18,700,000	..	9,829,000	13.10	25.27½	0 8995	1.1026
April ..	19,097,000	10,191,827	9,431,000	13.11¼	25.40	0.8826	1.1014
May...	18,978,000	..	8,884,000	13.12	25.45	0.8826	1.0900
June ..	18,922,000	..	8,645,000	13.11¼	25.45	0.8814	1.1029
July...	18,895,000	10,518,682	8,659,000	13.12	25.45	0.8903	1.1087
August	19,110,000	..	8,598,000	13.11	25.32½	0.8995	1.1102
Sept. ..	19,147,000	..	8,272,000	13.12	25.42½	0.8826	1.1191
Oct....	19,126,000	10,154,112	7,695,000	13.12	25.40	0.8133	1.1267
Nov. ..	18,914,000	..	7,123,000	13.11¼	25.42½	0.7716	1.1307
Dec....	18,694,000	..	6,781,000	13.11	25.40	0.7793	1.1470
1835-Jan....	18,012,000	10,659,828	6,741,000	13.10¼	25.40	0.7607	1.1503
Feb ...	18,099,000	..	6,693,000	13.10¼	25.40	0.7562	1.1606
March.	18,311,000	..	6,536,000	13.11	25.45	0.7546	1.1681
April ..	18,591,000	10,420,160	6,329,000	13.13	25.62½	0.7391	1.1637
May...	18,542,000	..	6,197,000	13.11¾	25.45	0.7251	1.1580
June ..	18,460,000	..	6,150,000	13.13¼	25.60	0.7297	1.1672
July...	18,315,000	10,939,801	6,219,000	13.13¼	25.60	0.7421	1.1686
August	18,322,000	..	6,283,000	13.14¼	25.60	0.7854	1.1697
Sept...	18,340,000	..	6,326,000	13.14¼	25.60	0.7732	1.1855
Oct....	18,240,000	10,420,623	6,261,000	13.14¼	25.62½	0.7128	1.1892
Nov....	17,930,000	..	6,186,000	13.14½	25 62½	0.6821	1.2198
Dec ...	17,321,000	..	6,626,000	13.13¾	25.62½	0.6790	1.2327
1836-Jan....	17,262,000	11,134,414	7,076,000	13.14	25.65	0.6666	1.2555
Feb....	17,427,000	..	7,471,000	13,13¾	25.57½	0.7333	1.2640
March.	17,739,000	..	7,701,000	13.13¾	25.55	0.8259	1.2762
April..	18,063,000	11,447,919	7,801,000	13 13¾	25.35	0.8592	1.2915
May...	18,154,000	..	7,782,000	13.13	25.50	0.8870	1.2990
June ..	18,051,000	..	7,663,000	13.13½	25 52½	0.9222	1.3120
July...	17,899,000	12,202,196	7,362,000	13.12½	25.50	0.9381	1.3290
Aug. ..	17,940,000	..	6,926,000	13.12	25.40	0.9381	1.3460
Sept...	18,061,000	..	6,325,000	13.12	25.35	0.8907	1.3287
Oct....	18,147,000	11,733,945	5,719,000	13.13¼	25.37½	0.8740	1.3233
Nov....	17,936,000	..	5,257,000	13.12¼	25.40	0.9566	1.3289
Dec....	17,361,000	..	4,545,000	13.12½	25.50	1.1037	1.2920
1837-Jan....	17,422,000	12,011,697	4,287,000	13.12	25.55	1.0955	1.2682
Feb....	17,868,000	..	4,032,000	13.11½	25.42½	1.0880	1.2477
March.	18,178,000	..	4,048,000	13.11½	25.47½	1.0325	1.2494
April ..	18,432,000	11,031,063	4,071,000	13.13	25.60	1.0494	1.2255
May...	18,480,000	..	4,190,000	13.13¾	25.60	1.0277	1.1865
June...	18,419,000	..	4,423,000	13.13¾	25.45	1.0061	1.1591
July...	18,202,000	10,872,437	4,750,000	13.13¾	25.50	1.0340	1.1422
Aug. ..	18,462,000	..	5,754,000	13.14	25.55	1.1126	1.1336
Sept...	18,814,000	..	6,303,000	13.13¼	25.55	1.0462	1.1321
Oct....	18,716,000	10,142,049	6,856,000	13.13¼	25.55	1.0463	1.1450
Nov....	18,344,000	..	7,432,000	13.13¼	25.55	0.9444	1.1586
Dec....	17,998,000	..	8,172,000	13.11¼	25.50	0.9721	1.1689

Chapter XIII.

COINAGE.

Bad state of the Coinage at the beginning of the century—Disappearance of Coin—Bank Tokens—Moneys coined 1801 to 1836—Diminished weight of Silver Coins—Proposal of Double Standard—Copper Coinage 1821 to 1836.

The condition of the country in regard to the coined money in circulation during the early years of the present century was exceedingly unsatisfactory. Of silver coin issued from the Mint there was scarcely any. The shillings and sixpences that passed from hand to hand by common consent were almost all of them blank pieces of silver, intrinsically worth less than half the sums at which they were current. Guineas, half-guineas, and gold pieces of the value of seven shillings, were occasionally seen; but the rapid advance in the market-price of gold, as explained in a former Chapter, at length effectually drove all coins of that metal from circulation. The place of guineas was supplied by bank notes, of the denominations of one and two pounds; and, to provide the community with means for carrying on the smaller transactions of daily traffic, different expedients were successively adopted. At first, Spanish dollars stamped with a diminutive impress of the King's head were issued by Government at the rate of 4*s.* 6*d.* each; but these soon disappeared, and the Bank of England was authorised to issue "tokens," and put into circulation pieces of the respective nominal values of 1*s.* 6*d.*, of 3*s.*,

and of 5*s*. The last of those tokens consisted of Spanish dollars, the original impress upon which was removed, and a different one given by means of a powerful press. The smaller tokens—those of 3*s*. and 1*s*. 6*d*.—were intrinsically so far below their nominal value, that they remained in circulation until called in; but the dollars, or five-shilling tokens, were so much nearer in value to their nominal rate, that, on a further advance in the market price of silver bullion, it became necessary to raise their nominal value 10 per cent., causing them to pass for 5*s*. 6*d*. each.

An Account of the Value of Gold and Silver Moneys coined at the Mint in each Year from 1801 to 1836.

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
1801	450,242	53	450,295
1802	437,018	62	437,080
1803	596,444	72	596,516
1804	718,397	77	718,474
1805	54,668	183	54,851
1806	405,105	Nil.	405,105
1807	Nil.	108	108
1808	371,744	Nil.	371,744
1809	298,946	115	299,061
1810	316,935	121	317,056
1811	312,263	Nil.	312,263
1812	Nil.	52	52
1813	519,722	90	519,812
1814	Nil.	161	161
1815	..	Nil.	Nil.
1816	..	1,805,251	1,805,251
1817	4,275,337	2,436,298	6,711,635
1818	2,862,373	576,279	3,438,652
1819	3,574	1,267,273	1,270,847
1820	949,516	847,717	1,797,233
1821	9,520,758	433,686	9,954,444
1822	5,356,787	31,430	5,388,217
1823	759,748	285,272	1,045,020
1824	4,065,075	282,070	4,347,145

An Account of the Value of Gold and Silver Moneys coined at the Mint in each Year from 1801 to 1836—(*concluded*).

Years.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
1825	4,580,919	417,535	4,998.454
1826	5,896,461	608,606	6,505,067
1827	2,512,636	33,020	2,545,656
1828	1,008,559	16,288	1,024,847
1829	2,446,754	108,260	2,555,014
1830	2,387,881	151	2,388,032
1831	587,949	33,696	621,645
1832	3,730,757	145	3,730,902
1833	1,225,269	145	1,225,414
1834	66,949	432,775	499,724
1835	1,109,718	146,665	1,256,383
1836	1,787,782	497,719	2,285,501

With the exception of an insignificant amount of small coins, struck for the purpose of distribution as alms by the King, and known as Maundy Money—from the circumstances of its being given away on Maundy Monday—there was not any silver coinage by the State until 1816. Previous to that year, 12 oz. of standard silver, containing 11 oz. 2 dwts. of pure silver, and 18 dwts. alloy, were by law to be coined into 62*s.*; but in that year an Act was passed, making gold coin only legal tender in all payments of more than 40*s.*, and providing that the pound, or twelve ounces troy, of standard silver should be coined into 66 shillings, giving to the State, as seignorage, the difference between the market-price of silver of the Mint standard and 5*s.* 6*d.* per ounce. Before the passing of this Act (56 Geo. III. c. 68), silver coin of standard weight and fineness was a legal tender to the amount of 25*l.* The market-price of silver has not been such since the year 1816 as to afford any temptation for melting or exporting silver coins issued at this rate of

depreciation, and the country has continued to be amply supplied with silver coins of every denomination.

It has been proposed at various times, by persons whose names give considerable weight to their recommendation, that we should adopt a double standard, and make silver as well as gold a legal tender to any amount. Under such a state of the law, it would be necessary again to coin silver money of standard fineness at the Mint rate of 5*s*. 2*d*. per ounce; and if, owing to any sudden mercantile demand, or such a commercial derangement as we have too often witnessed, it should ever become profitable to export silver, we might then be subjected to very great inconvenience. On the other hand, it must be allowed that, if such an option as that supposed were given—viz., that of paying in whichever coin might best suit the debtor—the Bank of England, in meeting a foreign demand, might occasionally realise large profits, from which it is at present shut out; but this is the only advantage that can be anticipated from the establishment of a double standard, and it would surely be unwise to incur the risk of the general inconvenience for the sake of a profit that might possibly result to a private body.

Copper coin is issued from the Mint at the rate of 224*l*. per ton, or more than 100 per cent. above its market value; there can hardly be expected, therefore, to arise any temptation for its conversion to any other purpose. The copper coinage which was issued in 1797, in place of the old defaced Tower halfpence, was of the intrinsic value of 149*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*. per ton; but as the market value of the metal rose in 1806 to 200*l*. per ton, it has since then been thought advisable to adopt the rate above mentioned. The value of copper coin issued since the peace has been as follows:—

	£.	s.	d.
1815 to 1820	Nil.		
1821	2,800	0	0
1822	43,355	4	0
1823	32,480	0	0
1824	Nil.		
1825	9,408	0	0
1826	50,400	0	0
1827	19,712	0	0
1828	2,464	0	0
1829	1,568	0	0
1830	2,464	0	0
1831	7,392	0	0
1832	448	0	0
1833	Nil.		
1834	3,136	0	0
1835	2,688	0	0
1836	1,792	0	0
	£180,107	4	0

Previous to the copper coinage above mentioned, as having been made in 1797, the country was inundated from one end to the other by coins put into circulation as halfpence, and which were struck by tradesmen or other private adventurers. The encouragement to this course was found in the existing state of the small coinage. The halfpence put into circulation by private parties were some of them creditable specimens of the art of coining; and all of them, although intrinsically below their nominal value, were yet considerably nearer to it than the halfpence otherwise circulating. When the State undertook, in 1797, to issue new copper coins, the circulation of these private tokens was prohibited.

Chapter XIV.

WAGES.

Bad Seasons 1795–1800—Privations of Working Classes—Decreased Number of Marriages—Greater competition and exertion among Labourers when food is dear—Wages not readily adjusted to fluctuation of seasons—Influence of those fluctuations upon character of Labourers—Weekly Wages of Artisans, &c., 1800–1836—Benefits resulting from cheap clothing—Insufficiency of charitable aid as a substitute for regular employment—Trials of the Poor—Motives for Self-dependence—Wages in some Foreign Countries.

The present century opened inauspiciously for the working classes in this kingdom. The harvest of 1795 had been very deficient. The quality was excellent, but the quantity so short that, at the close of the season, the price of wheat had advanced to six guineas per quarter. The extraordinary measures that had been adopted by government of buying up wheat and depositing it in granaries, and also of forcibly seizing, on the high seas, neutral vessels loaded with grain, and compelling the masters to sell their cargoes to the government agents—measures exceedingly objectionable upon many grounds—had the effect of preventing a still greater advance of prices, which might otherwise have occurred. The season of 1796 was favourable, and the price fell from 122*s.* at the beginning, to 56*s.* at the end of the year. In 1797 the quality was bad and the quantity deficient, and the harvest of 1798 was only moderately abundant; there was consequently no store of grain to bring in aid of the deficient harvest of 1799, immediately after which

the price rose to 92*s.* 7*d.* per quarter. In 1800 the quality was injured by excessive rains, and the quantity was so short that the average price of wheat, on the 1st of January 1801, had advanced to 139*s.* per quarter; every other article of provisions being proportionately dear. Before the harvest of 1801 was secured the price of wheat, in the London market, reached 180*s.* per quarter, and the quartern loaf was, for four weeks, as high as 1*s.* 10½*d.*

The privation and misery which, under these circumstances, fell to the lot of the poor, were exceedingly great, notwithstanding the anxious attention given to the subject by the legislature, and the exercise of the most extensive private benevolence. So great and alarming was the dearth that it became a matter of principle, even with the wealthy classes, to economise as much as possible in their families, the use of the principal article of food, in order that more might remain, and at a less exorbitant price, for the use of the poor. The best test that can be offered singly of the privations at that time endured by the bulk of the people is to be found in the marriage registers. The numbers exhibited therein, for each of the years from 1794 to 1801 inclusive, were as follow:—

1794 . . . 71,797	1798 . . . 79,477
1795 . . . 68,839	1799 . . . 77,557
1796 . . . 73,107	1800 . . . 69,851
1797 . . . 74,997	1801 . . . 67,288

It is curious to observe how intimate a relation exists between the price of food and the number of marriages. The falling off in that number observable in 1795, 1800, and 1801, was, in each year, very marked in its character. The harvest of 1801 was moderately abundant,

and as, in addition to the home produce, the importations of wheat, under the stimulus of a bounty, had been very large (Sec. 2, Chap. i.), the price fell, in the latter part of the year, to less than half what it had been before the harvest. In 1802 the crops, although not very abundant, yielded enough, with a small importation, for our wants, and prices became still more moderate. The number of marriages in England in these two years, according to the registers, was 90,396 in 1802, and 94,379 in 1803. In March 1804 the average price of wheat was as low as 49*s.* 6*d.* per quarter, but the harvest in that year was far from being good, and, towards Christmas, the price was double what it had been nine months before. The price continued high until the result of the harvest of 1805 could be known. This proving more favourable, and a considerable quantity of foreign grain having been imported, prices again receded, but not extensively. The number of marriages in 1804 and 1805 again showed the restraining effect in this respect of high prices, having been 85,738 and 79,586, respectively. It is not necessary to pursue this branch of inquiry any farther in this place, the means for that purpose having been given in the preceding sections of this work.*

The relation that subsists between the price of food and the number of marriages is not confined to our own country, and it is not improbable that, had we the means of ascertaining the facts, we should see the like result in every civilised community. We possess the necessary returns from France, and these fully bear out the view that has been given. In 1808, the price of wheat being 52*s.* 5*d.* per quarter, the number of marriages in

* Vol. i. pp. 31 and 156.

that country was 220,933; in the following year the price of wheat fell to 38*s.*, or 27 per cent., and the number of marriages rose to 267,964; in 1811 the price rose to 67*s.*, and the marriages fell off to 203,731. Between 1816 and 1817 the price of wheat rose nearly 50 per cent., and the marriages diminished from 249,247 to 205,877. The influence here ascribed to this cause has been even more striking during the three years ending with 1835, because the low price of wheat which has continued through those years has been accompanied by a constant augmentation in the number of marriages. The average prices during the four years, 1832 to 1835, and the number of marriages that occurred in each of those years, were—

1832 . . .	242,469 . . .	52*s.* 0*d.*	per quarter.
1833 . . .	263,553 . . .	38*s.* 0*d.*	,,
1834 . . .	271,220 . . .	34*s.* 3*d.*	,,
1835 . . .	275,508 . . .	34*s.* 5*d.*	,,

It will be seen from the foregoing details that the rate of wages adjusts itself but slowly to the varying necessities of the working classes as influenced by the seasons. It may, and indeed sometimes does, happen that a sudden and violent rise in the prices of the necessaries of life acts with a twofold effect against the industrious poor. In order to provide the wonted supply of food for their families, men employed at piece-work are induced to task their labour more severely than usual, and by this means soon create against themselves a scarcity of employment, which induces them to underbid each other in the labour market, until they end by procuring in return for greatly increased exertion, even a smaller amount of wages than they had received before the high price of provisions had driven them to severer labour.

An instance of the manner and degree in which this effect has been produced was given in evidence by a land-owner (Mr. Milne) before a Committee of the House of Lords, on the Corn Laws, which sat in 1814. "I wished to enclose a farm at the latter end of the year 1812, or the beginning of 1813.* I sent for my bailiff and told him that I had enclosed, about twenty-five years ago, a good deal of land; that the enclosure at that time cost me 3*s.* per ell of 37 inches; that a neighbour of mine, two or three years ago, had made similar enclosures, which cost him 5*s.* per ell; that I thought he had paid too much, and that I ought to do it cheaper. The answer I got from my bailiff was—that provisions were very high, that the labourers were doing double work, and that of course there was less demand for labour; and that he could do these enclosures last year at a cheaper rate than I had ever done them; and he actually executed this enclosure at about 2*s.* 6*d.* per ell. He again came to me and told me that I had proposed to him to do some ditching and draining upon another farm, which I did not intend to do till about a twelvemonth after, from the circumstance of not being fully in possession of the whole farm. He requested that I would allow him to do it that season, as he could do it so much cheaper, and that a great many labourers were idle from having little work, in consequence of those employed doing double work. I desired him to go on with that labour likewise, and he actually contracted, for very large ditches, at 6*d.* an ell, which I do not think I could do now under from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*, in consequence of the fall in provisions."

* Average prices of wheat, 1812 . . . 122*s.* 8*d.*
,, ,, ,, 1813 . . . 106*s.* 6*d.*

If the cost of living to a labourer's family were permanently increased, there can be no doubt that wages must rise proportionally; but as—comparing one with another—the different years that make up the sum of a labouring man's existence, there can be no permanence or steadiness in the prices of articles dependent for their abundance or scarcity upon the seasons, it must often happen under our present system that the bulk of the people will be exposed to violent alternations of plenty and misery, the remedy for which must be of a purely moral nature, and cannot be conveniently discussed on this occasion.

The most extensive register which, in point of time, we have of the rates of wages, is found in returns made to Parliament by Greenwich Hospital. Unfortunately, however, the descriptions of artisans employed in that establishment are few, and their occupations come altogether under the description of skilled labour. Besides this, the returns made up to 1805 are given only at intervals of five years; while the rates published are those paid to masters who contract for the performance of the work, and are not the sums received by the workmen.

No one, unless he shall have made the attempt to obtain information of this kind, can be aware of the difficulty opposed to his success. After many and long-continued efforts to that end, it is not possible here to bring forward many authentic or continuous statements of the rates of wages in this country. The following Table comprises indeed nearly all that can be offered on the subject with confidence to the reader. Some details of the rate of wages paid to agricultural labourers might have been added, but owing to the vicious system which prevailed until lately through almost every part of the kingdom of paying a part of the

wages of such labourers out of parochial rates, the addition would not have given any greater value to the statement. The last column contains the annual average price of wheat in each of the years. If the variations in the weekly earnings of artisans are examined in connexion with the variations in the price of this first necessary of life, it will at once be seen what violent alternations of misery and comparative plenty must have been experienced by the working classes in this country, and an additional argument will be thence afforded for bringing about an effectual modification of the law which, by virtually excluding grain of foreign growth, aggravates such alternations.

The influence which these alternations have upon the moral character of the working classes is greater than would be conceived by any persons who have not had opportunities for observation or inquiry upon the subject. The following facts, which are given upon the authority of the gentleman who has had the chief practical direction of an extensive work, will serve to confirm the position here advanced, and will show how paramount a duty it is for those whose acts and deliberations must tend to the continuance or removal of so unfavourable a state of things, to give their earnest and most careful thoughts for the introduction of a more certain and stable system.

The formation of a canal which has been in progress during the last five years in the north of Ireland has afforded steady employment to a portion of the peasantry who before that time were suffering all the evils, so common in that country, which result from the precariousness of employment. Such work as they could previously get came at uncertain intervals, and was sought by so many competitors, that the

remuneration was of the scantiest amount. In this condition of things, the men were improvident to recklessness; their wages, insufficient for the comfortable sustenance of their families, were wasted in procuring for themselves a temporary forgetfulness of their misery at the whiskey-shop, and the men appeared to be sunk into a state of hopeless degradation. From the moment, however, that work was offered to them which was constant in its nature and certain in its duration, and on which their weekly earnings would be sufficient to provide for their comfortable support, men who had been idle and dissolute were converted into sober, hard-working labourers, and proved themselves kind and careful husbands and fathers; and it is stated as a fact, that notwithstanding the distribution of several hundred pounds weekly in wages, the whole of which must be considered as so much additional money placed in their hands, the consumption of whiskey was absolutely and permanently diminished in the district. During the comparatively short period in which this canal has been in progress, some of the most careful labourers, men who most probably before then never knew what it was to possess five shillings at any one time, have saved sufficient money to enable them to emigrate to Canada, where they are now labouring in independence for the improvement of their own land.

Weekly Wages of Artisans, &c. in various parts of the kingdom, at different periods within the present century.

Years.	Carpenters.					Bricklayers.				Masons.				
	Greenwich Hospital.	Manchester.	Londonderry.	Glasgow.	Arbroath.	Greenwich Hospital.	Manchester.	Glasgow.		Greenwich Hospital.	Manchester.	Londonderry.	Glasgow.	Arbroath.
	s. d.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s. d.	s. d.	s.		s. d.	s.	s. d.	s	s. d.
1800	18 0	..	..	..	..	18 0	..	..		17 0	..	..	..	..
1805	27 0	..	..	..	..	29 0	..	..		30 0	..	..	..	..
1806	27 0	..	..	..	..	29 0	..	..		30 0	..	..	..	..
1807	30 0	..	..	..	..	28 0	..	..		30 0	..	..	..	..
1808	30 0	..	..	..	..	30 0	..	..		30 0	..	..	..	..
1809	32 0	..	..	..	..	30 6	..	..		30 6	..	..	..	..
1810	34 0	25	..	18	..	31 0	22 6	17		31 6	22	..	17	..
1811	33 0	25	..	18	..	32 6	22 6	17		34 6	22	..	17	..
1812	33 0	25	..	18	..	32 6	22 6	17		34 6	22	..	18	12 8½
1813	33 0	25	..	18	..	32 6	22 6	17		34 6	22	..	18	12 7½
1814	33 0	25	..	18	..	32 6	22 6	17		34 6	22	..	18	11 6½
1815	33 0	25	..	18	..	30 6	22 6	17		34 6	22	..	18	10 0½
1816	31 0	25	..	18	..	30 6	22 6	17		31 6	22	..	18	9 3
1817	31 0	25	..	18	..	30 6	22 6	17		31 6	22	..	20	9 0
1818	31 0	25	..	18	14	30 6	22 6	17		31 6	22	..	19	11 4
1819	31 6	25	..	14	14	30 6	22 6	16		31 6	22	..	15	9 0
1820	31 6	25	..	..	14	30 6	22 6	..		31 6	22	..	..	9 3
1821	31 6	25	20	..	14	30 6	22 6	..		31 6	24	20 0	..	10 0
1822	31 6	26	20	..	14	30 0	25 0	..		30 0	26	20 0	..	9 10
1823	30 0	22	19	..	14	29 0	21 0	..		30 0	22	19 0	..	12 7
1824	30 0	22	19	..	14	29 0	21 0	..		30 0	22	19 0	..	14 0
1825	30 0	24	19	..	17	29 0	24 0	..		30 0	24	19 0	..	14 1½
1826	34 6	..	18	..	15	29 0	..	..		33 0	..	18 0	..	10 3½
1827	34 6	..	18	..	12	29 0	..	..		33 0	..	18 0	..	10 3½
1828	34 0	..	17	..	12	28 6	..	..		32 6	..	17 0	..	10 3½
1829	34 0	..	17	..	12	28 6	..	..		32 6	..	17 0	..	10 3½
1830	33 0	..	17	..	12	28 6	..	..		32 0	..	17 0	..	10 3½
1831	32 6	..	16	14	12	28 6	..	15		31 6	..	16 0	14	10 3½
1832	32 6	24	16	..	12	28 6	17 0	..		31 6	18	16 0	..	10 3½
1833	32 6	..	16	..	12	28 6	..	..		31 6	..	16 0	..	10 3½
1834	32 6	..	16	..	..	28 6	..	..		31 6	..	16 6	..	
1835	29 3	..	16	..	..	26 5	..	..		29 1½	..	18 0	..	
1836	29 3	..	16	..	..	26 9	..	..		29 1½	..	18 0	..	

Weekly Wages of Artisans, &c. in various parts of the kingdom, at different periods within the present century—(*continued*).

Years.	Plumbers.			Tailors.				Shoemakers.				Hand-loom Weavers.			
	Greenwich Hospital.		Glasgow.	Manchester.	Loedonderry.	Glasgow.	Arbroath.	Manchester.	Londonderry.	Glasgow.	Arbroath.	Manchester.	Glasgow.	Arbroath.
	s.	d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s.	s.	s.	s. d.	s.		s. d	s. d.	s. d.
1800	19	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..	13 1	..
1805	27	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..	15 4	..
1806	27	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..	17 8	..
1807	27	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..	15 6	..
1808	27	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..	13 2	..
1809	31	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		..	11 9	..
1810	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	19	..	16	..	15		16 3	11 6	..
1811	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	19	..	16	..	15		12 6	7 6	..
1812	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	19	15	16	..	15		13 0	9 9	16 0
1813	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	19	15	16	..	15		12 6	12 1½	16 0
1814	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	19	15	16	..	15		15 7	13 0	16 0
1815	34	6	22 6	21 6	..	19	15	16	..	15		13 2	11 6	14 0
1816	32	6	22 6	21 6	..	21	15	16	..	15		13 2	5 6	12 0
1817	34	6	22 6	21 6	..	21	15	16	..	15		9 6	5 9	12 0
1818	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	20	15	16	..	15		9 6	6 6	12 0
1819	34	6	22 6	18 6	..	20	15	16	..	15		9 6	5 0	12 0
1820	34	6	..	18 6	..	..	15	16	..	..		11 0	..	12 0
1821	34	6	..	18 6	20 0	..	15	18	15 0	..		11 0	..	13 6
1822	33	0	..	18 6	18 0	..	15	18	15 0	..		11 0	..	14 0
1823	33	0	..	21 0	18 0	..	15	16	14 0	..		6 6	..	13 0
1824	33	0	..	21 0	18 0	..	15	16	14 0	..		6 6	..	13 0
1825	33	0	..	21 0	18 0	..	16	16	14 0	..		6 6	..	13 0
1826	34	6	..	..	18 0	..	15	..	14 0	..		..	..	12 0
1827	34	6	..	..	16 0	..	15	..	13 0	..		..	..	12 0
1828	34	0	..	..	16 0	..	15	..	13 0	..		..	..	12 0
1829	32	6	..	..	16 0	..	15	..	12 0	..		..	..	12 0
1830	33	0	..	..	16 0	..	15	..	12 0	..		..	..	12 6
1831	33	0	21 6	..	15 6	20	15	..	12 0	15		..	6 0	12 0
1832	33	0	..	18 0	15 6	..	15	15	12 0	..		9 0	..	12 0
1833	32	6	..	..	16 3	..	18	..	12 0	..		..	..	12 6
1834	32	6	..	..	16 3	..	..	..	12 0	..		..	..	..
1835	29	11	..	..	16 0	..	..	..	12 6	..		..	..	..
1836	29	11	..	..	16 0	..	..	..	12 6	..		..	..	..

From 10s. to 12s. throughout the period from 1812 to 1833.

Weekly Wages of Artisans, &c., in various parts of the kingdom, at different periods within the present century—(*continued*).

Years.	Hand-loom Weavers.						Spinners.				Wool Combers.				Stocking Makers.		Seamen's Wages.	
	Forfarshire.		Bolton.		Barrowford, Lancashire.		Oldham.		Manchester. Young Women.		Manchester. Men.		Bradford.		Leicester.		Leicester.		American Trade. Per Month.	Baltic Trade. Per Month.
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*s.*
1800	..		25	0	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1805	..		25	0	..		..		10	1½	..		..		..		..		..	..
1806	..		22	0	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1807	..		18	0	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1808	..		15	0	..		..		7	5½	..		..		..		..		..	..
1809	..		16	0	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1810	14	0	19	6	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1811	11	0	14	0	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1812	10	0	14	0	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1813	8	0	15	0	..		..		9	6	..		..		..		..		..	..
1814	12	0	24	0	26	0	13	9	..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1815	13	0	14	0	17	1	11	9	..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1816	7	0	12	0	13	5	9	0	..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1817	6	0	9	0	12	1	6	6	..		..		..		..		..		55	60 0
1818	8	0	9	0	14	5	8	9	10	5	..		..		20	0	..		55	55 0
1819	7	0	9	6	12	6	10	0	..		..		..		18	0	12	9	55	55 0
1820	7	0	9	0	11	8	9	0	..		..		..		18	0	12	9	50	55 0
1821	9	0	8	6	12	7	8	6	..		..		..		18	0	11	6½	50	55 0
1822	9	0	8	6	10	2	9	0	..		..		..		18	0	10	6	50	52 6
1823	9	0	8	6	9	4	9	6	9	3½	26	7	17	5	18	0	9	5½	55	55 0
1824	10	6	8	6	8	6	9	6	..		24	2	17	5	18	0	8	9¾	60	60 0
1825	11	6	8	6	8	6	8	9	..		29	8	17	5	21	0	11	6½	..	..
1826	5	0	7	0	5	3	6	6	..		..		15	8½	16	0	8	9¾	60	65 0
1827	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	..		26	1	15	8½	16	6	8	3	55	60 0
1828	7	6	6	0	6	6	7	0	9	1	27	4	14	2	18	0	8	3	55	57 6
1829	7	6	5	6	4	8	6	0	..		28	11	12	0½	16	0	8	3	55	60 0
1830	6	0	5	6	6	0	5	0	..		28	6	12	0½	14	0	7	8½	50	55 0
1831	6	6	5	6	6	7	5	0	..		30	2	12	0½	14	0	7	8½	55	60 0
1832	6	0	5	6	5	4	4	6	..		27	0	12	0½	14	0	7	8½	60	60 0
1833	6	6	5	6	5	4	4	6	8	5½	29	10	16	2	16	0	8	3	60	60 0
1834	6	0	5	6	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1835	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..
1836	..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..		..	..

Weekly Wages of Artisans, &c. in various parts of the kingdom, at different periods within the present century—(*continued*).

Years.	Seamen's Wages.	Labourers.					Compositors.			Printers.	Average Price of Wheat in England.
	Coal Trade to London, per Voyage	Glasgow.	Manchester.	Londonderry.	Bradford.	Bedford. Middlesex.	Compositors. Book-work. Lond.	Compositors. Mag. Papers. London.	Compositors. Evng. Papers. London.	Printers. Londonderry.	
	s.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s.*	*s d.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s. d.*	*s.*	*s. d.*
1800	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	40	37 0	..	110 5
1805	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	40	37 0	..	87 1
1806	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	40	37 0	..	76 9
1807	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	40	37 0	..	73 1
1808	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	40	37 0	..	78 11
1809	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	42	38 6	..	94 5
1810	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	..	33	48	43 6	..	103 3
1811	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	18 0	36	48	43 6	..	92 5
1812	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	18 0	36	48	43 6	..	122 8
1813	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	18 0	36	48	43 6	..	106 6
1814	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	15 0	36	48	43 6	..	72 1
1815	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	15 0	36	48	43 6	..	63 8
1816	..	11 0	15 0	..	..	15 0	36	48	43 6	..	76 2
1817	65 0	11 0	15 0	..	..	15 0	36	48	43 6	..	94 0
1818	63 0	9 0	15 0	..	..	15 0	36	48	43 6	..	83 8
1819	66 0	7 6	15 0	..	..	12 0	36	48	43 6	..	72 3
1820	65 0	..	13 6	..	..	12 0	36	48	43 6	..	65 10
1821	64 0	..	15 0	10 0	..	10 6	36	48	43 6	..	54 5
1822	63 9	..	15 0	10 0	..	10 0	36	48	43 6	..	43 3
1823	70 0	..	13 0	10 0	..	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	51 9
1824	71 8	..	13 0	9 0	16	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	62 0
1825	89 2	..	14 0	9 0	..	12 0	36	48	48 6	21	66 6
1826	90 0	..	..	9 0	15	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	56 11
1827	82 6	..	..	9 0	16	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	56 9
1828	70 0	..	..	9 0	15	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	60 5
1829	70 0	..	..	8 0	15	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	66 3
1830	70 0	..	..	8 0	15	12 0	36	48	43 6	21	64 3
1831	70 0	9 0	..	8 0	15	..	36	48	43 6	21	66 4
1832	65 0	..	..	8 0	15	..	36	48	43 6	21	58 8
1833	70 0	..	..	8 0	15	..	36	48	43 6	21	52 11
1834	..	..	..	8 0	15	..	36	48	43 6	21	46 2
1835	..	..	..	8 0	..	..	36	48	43 6	21	39 4
1836	..	..	..	7 6	..	..	36	48	43 6	21	48 6

It will be apparent from the examination of the foregoing Tables, that although at certain seasons all those who live by daily wages must have suffered privation, yet with some exceptions their condition has, in the course of years, been much ameliorated. The exceptions here alluded to are hand-loom weavers and others following analogous employments, conducted in the dwellings of the workmen. The diminution in the weekly earnings of other parties has been but small in any case, and certainly not commensurate with the diminished cost of most of the necessaries of life, comprehending in this list most articles of food and every article of clothing. By this means they have acquired with their somewhat diminished wages a much greater command than formerly over some of the comforts of life. It is true that the necessity under which most labouring men are placed of purchasing in very small quantities from retail dealers who are themselves, perhaps, unable to purchase in the best markets, prevents their deriving in every case the full advantage of diminished prices; but it must be plain to everybody that at least in one respect the condition of the labouring poor is greatly mended. The reduction in the prices of all kinds of manufactured goods, accompanied as it is by improvement in their quality, has been such, that few indeed are now so low in the scale of society as to be unable to provide themselves with decent and appropriate clothing. It cannot be necessary to adduce any evidence in support of this fact, which is obvious to every one who passes through the streets; so great indeed is the change in this respect, that it is but rarely we meet with any one that is not in at least decent apparel, except it be a mendicant, whose garb is assumed as an auxiliary to his profession. Those who through improvidence or misfortune are unprovided with clothes

of a good quality, which the improving customs of the people have made necessary, render homage to the feeling whereby that improvement has been brought about, and for the most part remain within their homes. The silk weavers of London who are located in Spitalfields and Bethnal Green and their vicinity are, too many of them, a very improvident class of people, so that many are unprovided with any other clothing than their working dresses. It has been attributed to this circumstance that those among them who reside in the town provide themselves with amusement by keeping pigeons, great numbers of which are always to be seen in Spitalfields, while those who live in the suburbs employ much of their leisure time in the cultivation of flowers. Before the repeal of the heavy duties which were long imposed upon raw and thrown silk, and when, consequently, silk fabrics were too costly to be within the reach of any but the easy classes, the hands engaged in their production were liable to be affected by every change of fashion. Periods occurred during which for many months together the silk weavers of Spitalfields were without employment, and their condition was deplorable in the extreme. It has followed from this, that many benevolent persons have at various times established charities within the district, which have had the effect of drawing to it great numbers of the labouring poor, and it has accordingly happened that whenever the weavers have experienced a want of employment, and the public sympathy has been awakened in their behalf, a considerable part of the contributions raised for their relief has been intercepted by persons following other employments, and who have found it no difficult matter to impose upon the persons to whom the distribution of relief has been entrusted. The inquiries made in April, 1837, by Dr.

Kay, in the Spitalfields district, have thrown a considerable degree of light upon the subject of affording extraneous aid in periods of distress, and it may be well to state here very briefly some of the results of his investigations. A weaver who is married has generally two looms, one for himself and another for his wife; if he have children, these as they grow up to be seven years of age and upwards, are set to assist in some of the auxiliary operations of his craft, such as winding, quilling and picking the silk, and at the age of twelve or thirteen they are put into the loom to weave. The man himself may be employed on a jacquard loom, and will earn on an average 25*s.* per week, or on a velvet or rich plain silk, when his earnings will be from 16*s.* to 20*s.* The wife will earn from 10*s.* to 12*s.*, and the gains of the children will be proportioned to their ages. Altogether, the man who is master of four looms is, in ordinary times, in receipt of such an amount of wages as should enable him to provide against at least the ordinary casualties of life, and the fluctuation that may arise in the demand for his labour. On the occurrence of a commercial crisis, for the silk weavers are now happily not so dependent for employment as formerly upon the fashion of the day, the loss of work occurs first among the least skilful; the children, whose earnings are least, are the earliest put out of work; next the wife is without employment, and it must be an extreme case which takes away any considerable part of the man's earnings. Such extreme cases may arise, however, and it may be well to inquire in what degree the greatest probable assistance through the subscriptions of individuals is calculated to repair the evil. The chief manufacturers are of opinion, that in times of ordinary activity, from 10,000*l.* to 12,000*l.* per week are usually paid as the wages of the weaving

population in the district. At the time of Dr. Kay's inquiry it was believed that this amount was reduced to 5000*l.* or 6000*l.* per week. The depression of 1825-6 was probably greater than this, and extended over a period of six or eight months; the contributions of the public, which amounted to 30,000*l.*, would therefore not supply more than one-fifth or one-sixth of the usual resources of the population, if even its distribution had been confined, which it was not, to the weaving population. In 1829, the subscriptions amounted to about 10,000*l.*, a sum scarcely equal to the deficiency of two weeks as experienced in the beginning of 1837. This consideration serves to show how important it is that we should endeavour by every legitimate means to preserve the channels of labour free from obstructions, and in how great a degree it behoves the government to be watchful to prevent those disturbances and alternations in the currency, which, with the exception of a state of war, are the most inimical of all things to the general prosperity of the trading and working classes.

Want of providence on the part of those who live by the labour of their hands, and whose employments so often depend upon circumstances beyond their control, is a theme which is constantly brought forward by many whose lot in life has been cast beyond the reach of want. It is, indeed, greatly to be wished, for their own sakes, that the habit were general among the labouring classes of saving some part of their wages when fully employed against less prosperous times; but it is difficult for those who are placed in circumstances of ease to estimate the amount of virtue that is implied in this self-denial. It must be a hard trial for one, who has recently, perhaps, seen his family enduring want, to deny them the small amount of indulgences, which are, at the best of times,

placed within their reach. The habitual exercise of forbearance of this kind is a thing, which in this country especially, we have but little right to expect from those who have been born and brought up under a law which offered a premium to improvidence; and the amount of savings deposited in provident banks by the poor under such circumstances should be looked upon as a most extraordinary evidence of their desire for independence, a desire which cannot be too anxiously fostered and encouraged by their rulers. We have seen how little comparative relief can be afforded in times of trial by even the most liberal assistance on the part of the wealthy, and indeed, from the mode of its distribution, this help is often productive of evil as well as good, a result from which the providence of the poor is altogether free.

Those persons who have been bred in the lap of ease, and whose passage through life has been unvisited by the cares and anxieties that attend upon the children of labour, are very inadequate judges of the trials on the one hand, and of the means for surmounting them on the other, which are offered to those who must always form the most numerous class in every community. Happily this subject has been cleared from the doubts by which it would otherwise be obscured, by the recorded observations and opinions of men, who themselves have struggled successfully against those difficulties, and have made the most of the opportunities yielded by a life of labour. One of these prudent and successful men, of whose labours advantage has been taken in a former section of this work, Mr. William Felkin, of Nottingham, thus forcibly and feelingly gives his testimony on the subject, in some remarks upon the appropriation of wages by the working classes, which he addressed to

the statistical section of the British Association, at its meeting in Liverpool:—

"If any one intends to improve his condition, he must earn all he can, spend as little as he can, and make what he does spend bring him and his family all the real enjoyment he can. The first saving which a working man effects out of his earnings, is the first step, and because it is the first, the most important step towards true independence. Now independence is as practicable in the case of an industrious and economic, though originally poor workman, as in that of the tradesman or merchant, and is as great and estimable a blessing. The same process must be attended to, *i. e.*, the entire expenditure being kept below the clear income, all contingent claims being carefully considered and provided for, and the surplus held sacred to be employed for those purposes, and those only, which duty and conscience may point out as important or desirable. This requires a course of laborious exertion and strict economy, a little foresight, and possibly some privation. But this is only what is common to the acquisition of all desirable objects. And inasmuch as I know what it is to labour with the hands long hours, and for small wages, as well as any workman to whom I address myself, and to practise self-denial withal, I am emboldened to declare from experience, that the gain of independence, or rather self-dependence, for which I plead, is worth infinitely more than all the cost of its attainment; and moreover, that to attain it, in a greater or less degree, according to circumstances, is within the power of far the greater number of skilled workmen engaged in our manufactures. Unhappily, the earnings of the industrious workpeople in some trades have been at times, and often for a long time, so scanty as to afford scarcely

the means of existence. The hand-loom weavers and common stocking makers have been very distressing cases of this kind, but they have been exceptions, and most powerfully establish the general position, for instances have not been of unfrequent occurrence in both these trades, of workmen, by dint of perseverance and economy, emerging from the mass of misery around them, and placing themselves in easy and happy circumstances."

The circumstances that gave occasion to these remarks on the part of Mr. Felkin, arose out of the commercial pressure which bore with peculiar severity upon the manufacturing industry of Nottingham in the early part of 1837. To relieve in some degree the sufferings of the unemployed workmen, a subscription was raised amounting to 5000*l.*, and expended in the construction of a road, from the opening of which much benefit has resulted. The account which Mr. Felkin, who acted a prominent part in the management of this fund, has given of the result, is, in many respects, highly interesting. Considerable pains were taken to ascertain the character and previous condition of every applicant for employment, and complete returns were obtained with regard to 1,043 persons, having among them 779 wives and 2,165 children, making together 3,987 persons. Among them were 452 framework knitters, whose weekly wages, when fully employed, averaged 11*s.* 6¾*d.*, and 176 of their wives are stated to have earned on the average 1*s.* 10¾*d.*, per week. There were 496 lace-makers, whose weekly earnings had averaged 15*s.* 1*d.*, while 182 of their wives had earned on the average 2*s.* 1¼*d.* per week. The weekly gains of the remaining 93 persons employed in various ways had averaged 16*s.* 4*d.*, and 34 of their wives had earned each 1*s.* 9*d.* per week. The average weekly

earnings of each family were found to be about 17*s.* 6*d.*, as given by themselves, but it is known, that at least in some cases, the full amount was not stated by them. Among all these cases investigated, "eight only had been pauperised in any form." The average period during which the 1,043 families had been only partially employed, was 10 weeks and 3 days, and the average time during which they had been wholly without work, was 6 weeks and 5 days. Some had, of course, been longer unemployed than others, and it is a remarkable fact established by these inquiries, "that men with five or six children supported themselves and their families under the circumstances of short work or total deprivation of labour, as long as the unmarried, or those who had smaller families." Not one of the 1,043 applicants had been a depositor in the savings' bank.

The circumstances attending the condition of the working classes in other countries differ in many respects from those which influence their condition in Great Britain. This has been shown already in a former Chapter,* a reference to which will sufficiently explain the difficulty of instituting any comparisons on the subject.

In November, 1833, instructions were addressed by the Secretary of State, Lord Palmerston, to certain British Consuls residing abroad, requiring answers to certain questions having reference to the state of agriculture, and to the condition of the agricultural peasantry within the districts of their consulates. Answers received from the Consuls in various parts of France, Germany, the Netherlands, and Italy, have lately been presented to Parliament, and from these documents the following abstract is taken:—

* Section 1. Chapter iv. Pauperism.

Country and District.	Description of Servant.	Yearly Wages.	Daily Wages.	With or Without Board.	With or Without Dwelling.
France.		*s. d. s. d.*	*d. d.*		
Calais.....	Ploughmen	100 0 to 160 0	..	With	With
	Shepherds	250 0	..	,,	,,
	Labourers	....	7½	,,	Without
Boulogne	Ploughmen	144 0	..	,,	With
	Labourers	....	5	Without	Without
Havre.....	Farm Servants generally	160 0 to 240 0	..	With	With
Brest.....	Ditto	48 0 to 120 0	..	,,	,,
Nantes	Labourers	....	8½	Without	Without
Charente ...	Farm Servants generally	60 0 to 160 0	..	With	With
Bordeaux ...	Labourers	....	12 to 15	Without	Without
Bayonne	Ditto	....	9 to 12	,,	,,
Marseilles ...	Shepherds	200 0 to 240 0	..	With	With
	Labourers	....	4½ to 7	,,	Without
Corsica	Ditto	....	11	Without	,,
Germany.					
Danzig	Farm Servants	52 0 to 64 0	..	With	With
	Labourers	....	4¾ to 7	Without	,,
Mecklenburg	Farm Servants	100 0	..	With	,,
	Labourers	....	7	Without	,,
Holstein.....	Farm Servants	73 6 to 100 0	..	With	,,
	Labourers	....	7	Without	,,
Netherlands.					
S. Holland ..	Farm Servants	200 0 to 250 0	..	With	,,
	Labourers	....	3 to 4	,,	,,
N. Holland ..	Ditto	....	20	Without	Without
Friesland ...	Farm Servants	50 0 to 166 8	..	With	With
	Labourers	....	6 to 16	Without	Without
Antwerp	Farm Servants	78 9	..	With	With
	Labourers	....	5	Without	Without
W. Flanders .	Farm Servants	96 0 to 104 0	..	With	With
Italy.					
Trieste.....	Labourers	....	12	Without	Without
	Ditto	....	6	With	With
Istria	Ditto	....	8 to 10	Without	Without
	Ditto	....	4 to 5	With	With
Lombardy...	Ditto	....	4 to 8	,,	,,
Genoa	Farm Servants	60 0 to 100 0	..	,,	,,
	Labourers	....	5 to 8	,,	Without
	Ditto	....	12	Without	,,
Tuscany.....	Farm Servants	40 0	..	With	With
	Labourers	....	6	Without	Without

The usual method adopted in the Venetian States, is for the proprietor to stock the land, and to take one-half the produce for his rent, while the labourer takes a portion of the other half for his labour, and this portion varies according to the nature of the soil and the circumstances of the farm. In the province of Venice the land

is so poor as to produce only six measures for one measure of wheat sown. In Friuli the produce is eight for one, and in the Polesine, twelve measures are expected from an average harvest. The returns from maize are considered to be double those obtained from wheat.

Chapter XV.

MEASUREMENT AND CLASSING OF SHIPPING.

Inaccurate mode of measuring employed from 1773 to 1835—Various consequent evils—Remedy attempted, 1821—Accomplished, 1835—Imperfect classification of Ships—Bad consequences—Remedy provided, 1834.

The statements inserted in Chap. IX. give correctly the tonnage of mercantile vessels built in, and belonging to, the United Kingdom, as the same is expressed on the registers of the ships, and recorded at the custom-house; they likewise afford sufficiently accurate data for ascertaining the comparative amount of our mercantile marine, at different periods, throughout the years to which the statements apply; but they do not by any means supply correct information of the aggregate burthen of the ships at any one epoch. This want of accuracy is owing to the barbarous system which, up to a very recent date, was followed for the admeasurement of ships, and which

enabled their builders, at the sacrifice of some essential good qualities, to procure the official measurement to be very greatly below the actual cubical capacity of the hold of the vessel, which capacity it was pretended to insert in the register. The absurdity of computing the burthen of a vessel by the admeasurement of the length and breadth, without taking any account of the depth, does not need to be enforced. Occasions have arisen where ships had their holds deepened by building upon the sides, so as to add from one-fourth to one-third to their cubical capacity, and where, owing to some contraction of the width, at the point of measurement, the tonnage recorded in the register has been actually lessened.

The method here described was established in 1773-4, and would probably have proved in general accurate, if it had not offered an inducement—by means of duties charged on the registered tonnage—to construct ships out of proportion. If the evasion of a portion of those duties had been the only consequence of the faulty rule of admeasurement, the evil would have been trifling, when compared with that which it has really occasioned. Under the rule described the greater part of our merchant vessels are the most unsightly in Europe, and, what is of far more consequence, they sail badly and are very unmanageable in bad weather and on a lee-shore; for this last reason the loss of life that has been occasioned has been exceedingly great. It has been asserted by a gentleman who took a deep interest in procuring an alteration of the law of admeasurement, as the result of his inquiries, that if it had been necessary to enforce an application to the legislature by such means, he could easily have procured numerous signatures to a petition in which every person signing it should have occupied the relation of widow or child to those whose lives had fallen a

sacrifice to the unmanageable qualities of British merchant ships.

The evils here described were long felt, and the desirableness of providing a remedy acknowledged. For this purpose a committee, of which the late Dr. Thomas Young, Captain Kater, and Mr. Davies Gilbert were members, was appointed by the Admiralty in 1821. On that occasion upwards of fifty ships, of different sizes and descriptions, were examined, and it was ascertained that owing to their faulty proportions the weight of goods which they were capable of carrying exceeded the measurement tonnage, on the average, in the proportion of four to three. The evils of the system were fully exposed by the inquiries of this committee, but because the members of which it consisted were unable to suggest any plan by means of which mathematical accuracy could at all times be insured, no practical good resulted from their labours. After this the matter rested until 1834, when another committee was formed for the purpose by the Board of Admiralty. The principal members of this committee were Mr. Davies Gilbert and Captain Beaufort of the Royal Navy, the able hydrographer to the Admiralty, by whom the subject was taken up in a way at once scientific and practical; and in consequence of their report, and of the active exertions of the President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Poulett Thomson, a law was passed by which the evil has been checked, and placed in a course of gradual amendment. It will be long before this remedy shall have produced its full effect, as, of course, the ships that were in existence before the alteration of the system will be still employed; the temptation to build what are called "burthensome" vessels is however destroyed, and the advantage, as regards new ships, is all in favour of

the adoption of better and safer proportions in their form.

Another circumstance, which, although it had not the force of a legal provision, exerted a bad influence in regard to the proper construction of merchant ships, has lately been remedied. For a long series of years a committee of gentlemen connected with Lloyd's Coffee-House, has superintended a registry of the qualifications of ships, which, upon the reports made of them by surveyors, were placed in different classes, and according to the rank thus assigned to each, the preference was given, with regard to employment and to the rate at which the vessel, or goods shipped in her, could be insured, and of course also to the rate of freight earned by her, which was always diminished in proportion to the increased cost of the insurance upon the goods. Until the year 1834 the advancing age of the ship was always held to be conclusive evidence as to her deterioration, so that a vessel, when arrived at a certain age, was invariably transferred to a lower class, although, from having received efficient repairs, she might be, in reality, of superior qualifications to those she held at the time of the first survey and registration. As the almost inevitable consequence of this rule, ships were built with but little regard to durability, and if, as the term of their highest rank elapsed, repairs became necessary, these were applied as sparingly as possible, and, indeed, it usually happened, from the faults of their original construction, that they were undeserving of any great expense being incurred upon them. It will be seen how greatly this system must have acted in aggravation of the mischief caused by the faulty mode of measurement just described. The evil at length awakened the attention of a few spirited individuals, and through their ex-

ertions the system has been thoroughly reformed. Ships are now subjected to frequent surveys, by a competent body of able and well-paid officers, and they are classed, not according to the time that has elapsed since they were launched, but according to their condition at the moment of the survey. By this means a sufficient inducement is given to build them of good materials and in a proper manner, and further to give them, as often as is needed, thorough and substantial repairs. The underwriters, who formerly could place but little confidence in the rating of a ship in the register, now have full reliance upon its correctness, and the merchants and owners share the advantage in the lower rate of premium demanded.

Chapter XVI.

WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.

The necessity of paying duties on importation unfavourable to commerce—Productive of Fraud—Warehousing System proposed in 1733—In 1750—Introduced in 1803—Unfavourable conditions when first established—Gradual improvements—Disadvantages still resulting from the original restrictions—Warehousing Ports in England—Scotland—Ireland—Prevention of frauds against the revenue by means of Warehousing System.

The beginning of this century is marked by an exceedingly great improvement in our customs regulations. Previous to 1803 it was required of the importers that they should pay the consumption duties upon almost every description of foreign and colonial goods at the time of their importation: a system which tended in various ways to limit trade, by crippling the resources of the generality of our merchants, and by giving an undue advantage over others, to the few who had the command of large capitals. By this system the prices of almost all goods were increased to the consumers, who, in addition to the ordinary profits of trading, had to pay an additional profit to reimburse the merchant for the advance of the duty. Unless the disturbing influence of war should force trade into unnatural channels, it was impossible that while such a system was continued, the carrying trade of the country could experience any extension. The amount of duty that had been paid on importation was, indeed, in most cases returned, under the name of bounty or drawback, upon the goods being subsequently re-exported; but by this

means a door was opened for fraud upon the revenue to a large amount, and where transactions were honestly carried on, the interest upon the amount of duties, between the time of their being paid by and returned to the merchant, was in most cases lost, because it was not possible, in any way, to recover it from the foreign consumer.

The proposal to warehouse some descriptions of goods without payment of duties on importation formed part of the Excise scheme brought forward by Sir Robert Walpole, in 1733, but so great was the opposition offered to the plan by the ignorance and prejudices of party men, and probably also by traders, whose schemes for defrauding the revenue would by its means have been frustrated, that the intention was necessarily abandoned. A similar proposal was afterwards brought forward and ably supported by Dean Tucker, in 1750, but in vain. Having now for more than 30 years experienced in a considerable degree the benefits of the warehousing system, it is difficult for us to account for the blindness of those by whom it was so long successfully opposed. The advantages which we now derive from this system were not indeed experienced at its first adoption. Many of the regulations connected with it, which now impart such great facilities to commerce, have been introduced progressively, and some of them not without considerable opposition. For a long time after the passing of the first Warehousing Act (43 Geo. III. c. 132) it was held by the Government to be a boon specially granted to the mercantile class, and every application made for its improvement, or for obtaining further facilities for trade, was met and resisted in this spirit. It is only within the last few years that more enlightened views have prevailed, and that it has been seen and acknowledged that no facilities could be granted to the general body of

traders that would not prove at least as advantageous to the country at large. An account is always taken on landing of the weight or measure of every package; and until within the last few years it was rigidly exacted from the merchants in every case—with the exception of one article—tobacco—that the duty should be paid not upon the quantity remaining at the time of the goods being taken for consumption, but upon the quantity ascertained at landing, although in the interim the packages had remained in the sole custody of the revenue officers, without the possibility of any fraud having been committed. Further than this, if the goods, instead of being taken for consumption, were exported from the warehouses, an account was taken of the weight or measure at the time of shipment, and the merchant, before he was allowed to remove his goods from the custody of the crown, was compelled to pay the full consumption duty upon such part as had wasted in the warehouse. This course was justified under the plea already mentioned, that the privilege of warehousing was altogether a boon to the merchants; that without it they must have paid the duty on the full quantity imported, and would have been entitled to drawback only upon the part actually exported; and that therefore they were no losers by being made to pay the duty upon the quantity deficient. This was a specious argument, and, being held by those who had the power of enforcing their opinions, was long used successfully. A minister prepared to take a more enlarged view of the subject at length broke through the rule. He saw that, but for the privilege of warehousing without payment of duties, little, if any, of the transit trade of the country would have existence; that this trade offers a general benefit

to the community, and should not be considered as profitable only to those by whom it is carried on; that it was unjust to the owners of goods, against whom no fraud could be imputed, to visit them with penalties because of the waste which their property had undergone; and that to require the payment of consumption duty upon a greater quantity of goods than was actually consumed was in so far to substitute penalties for taxation; a system altogether unequal and therefore vicious. From that time to the present the Government has at all times been willing to give a favourable attention to the representations of the merchants, and so many concessions have thus been made from time to time, that our customs regulations, as adopted in some ports, are now acknowledged to afford almost every facility to the trader that can be made compatible with the due security of the revenue. Among the relaxations that have been thus conceded may be mentioned not only relief from the payment of duties on deficiencies ascertained upon re-exportation, but, in the case of such articles as are subject to waste, the duty is chargeable only upon the quantity ascertained to exist at the time it is taken from the warehouse. The owner may "sort, separate, pack, and re-pack," any goods in order to their preservation, or to effect a more ready sale or shipment; wines and spirits may be bottled in the warehouse, without payment of duty if intended for subsequent shipment; and woven fabrics imported from abroad may be taken out of warehouse without payment of duty, in order to their being cleaned, bleached, dyed, or printed, upon security being given to replace the same under the custody of the revenue officers. In fact the principle is now felt and acknowledged, that to facilitate in every

way the operations of honourable commerce must prove advantageous to the community at large.

The concession of the Government which permitted the bringing of certain goods into consumption upon payment being made of the duty upon such quantity as actually exists at the time of its being removed from the custody of the revenue officers was occasioned immediately by the circumstance of a large quantity of French brandy, 9000 puncheons, having remained in the London docks so long that the strength and quantity were diminished in such a degree, that the duty payable upon the portion that had wasted would have amounted to a greater sum than the market value of the brandy remaining exclusive of the duty. Under these circumstances, although the improvement in quality occasioned by time rendered these 9000 puncheons most desirable to the consumer, not a gallon could be brought into use, and the proprietors were compelled to bring over supplies of brandy, which had not been mellowed by age, but which would be admitted to consumption upon payment of duty upon the quantity of spirit which each cask contained. The folly of keeping a large capital thus unproductively locked up, and becoming daily less valuable, grew at length so apparent to the Government, that relief was afforded in the first instance to the owners of these specific casks of spirits; and, the door having been thus opened for the infraction of the principle, so long and so strenuously defended, it was soon after abandoned, and the rule adopted which has since been followed, and which is more in consonance with a just and liberal policy.

It is much to be regretted that the full advantages of which the warehousing system is found to be susceptible were not recognised at the time of its first adoption. The Act of 1803 specifically permitted the warehousing of

the most important articles of West India produce without payment of duty, in the West India docks; and of rice, tobacco, wine, and spirits in the London docks; besides which, the permission was given to warehouse several articles, the bulk of which is great in proportion to their value, in places to be approved by the Commissioners of the Customs, and a more numerous assortment of goods might in the same way be deposited in warehouses to be approved by the Lords of the Treasury. Although the Act was thus confined in its operation, it contained authority to the Lords of the Treasury to extend its provisions to any other ports in Great Britain, and also to the warehousing of goods, other than those mentioned in its various schedules. The power thus imparted was acted upon at first with the greatest caution. The construction and situation of the warehouses then existing in the various ports of the kingdom, and which had been built without reference to the kind of security required by the Government, were such that it was not considered consistent with the interests of the revenue to grant the same privileges to them as were conceded to the more secure warehouses of the docks in London. At the same time, the small amount of advantage that would then have attended the construction of warehouses of satisfactory security was not sufficient to induce the merchants to make any efforts for obtaining it; and in proportion as trade increased, and fresh warehouses were needed, these were built on the old plans, and in inappropriate situations, to meet the convenience of individual merchants. Had the system been placed at once upon its present liberal footing, the course in this respect pursued at the outports would have been different; warehouses equally secure with those of our great London establishments would have been at

once erected, instead of those just described, which are too costly to admit of their being abandoned, and the effect of this has been in various ways injurious to commerce. The merchants at the outports, feeling jealous of those in London, have always importuned the Government to extend to themselves the indulgences which the importers in the metropolis received, and to which they were fairly entitled by the security against abuse which they could offer. On the other hand, the Government, feeling how difficult a thing it is to convince any body of men of the reasonableness of distinctions which operate to their disadvantage, has been more slow than it would otherwise have been to make concessions in situations where they would be unaccompanied by risk to the revenue; and in this way the progress of the warehousing system has been more slow, and up to the present moment is less favourable to commerce than it is capable of being made, or than it would have proved, if a different course had been adopted from the first.

The privilege of warehousing goods without payment of duty was first extended to Ireland in 1824. The different ports in the United Kingdom to which it is now granted, with the dates of its first concession to each, are as follow:—

London, 1803 (East India Goods 1799, and Tobacco 1800).
Liverpool, 1805 (Tobacco, 1789).

Bristol	1805	Falmouth	1805
Hull	1805	Grimsby	1805
Newcastle	1805	Newhaven	1805
Plymouth	1805	Rochester	1806
Portsmouth	1805	Lynn	1806
Southampton	1805	Whitehaven	1806
Gloucester	1805	Ipswich	1806
Boston	1805	Lancaster	1806
Dover	1805	Exeter	1807

Sunderland	1807
Chester	1807
Colchester	1808
Weymouth	1809
Poole	1810
Dartmouth	1811
Stockton	1815
Shoreham	1819
Whitby	1820
Swansea	1821
Milford	1821
Bideford	1821
Chichester	1822
Barnstaple	1822
Cowes	1823
Rye	1823
Bridgewater	1823
Yarmouth	1825
Wisbeach	1825
Goole	1827

SCOTLAND

Greenock	1805
Port-Glasgow	1805
Leith	1806
Dumfries	1807
Aberdeen	1812
Grangemouth	1815
Dundee	1818
Glasgow	1822
Montrose	1823
Borrowstoness	1824

IRELAND.

Dublin	1824
Belfast	1824
Cork	1824
Wexford	1824
Coleraine	1824
Baltimore	1824
Newport	1824
Sligo	1825
Limerick	1825
Newry	1825
Waterford	1825
Drogheda	1825
Galway	1825
Londonderry	1825
Dundalk	1825

Among the practical advantages that have attended the adoption of the warehousing system may be mentioned the simplification of the Custom-house accounts, and the abridgment of labour in the revenue departments. During the time when the duty was exacted on the importation of goods, and was returned upon their re-exportation, the machinery of the Custom-houses and Excise-offices throughout the kingdom was complicated, through the necessity of creating checks for the prevention of frauds on the part of the exporting merchants. At that time the largest part by far of the money received on importation was paid back on the subsequent exportation of the

goods, and so systematically and extensively were frauds carried on under this system, that many large fortunes were created by that means, notwithstanding the enormous fines which at various times were imposed on their possessors when their fraudulent proceedings were brought to light. One extensive dealer in foreign spirits is known to have openly boasted to the Commissioners of Excise, on the occasion of paying to them a fine of 30,000*l.*, that he was still very largely in their debt. At that time, and before the construction of docks in the port of London, large cargoes of valuable goods—the more valuable by all the amount of duties that had been paid upon them—were deposited in private vaults and warehouses in the city, where they were exposed to pilfering and to fraudulent admixtures and substitutions, very prejudicial to the owners, and for the amount of which the large compensations paid by the dock companies are considered to have formed a very inadequate compensation to the warehouse-keepers. It is no small praise of the warehousing system to say, that it has thus removed much of the temptation to fraudulent proceedings on the part of a numerous proportion of the persons to whom trusts of this kind were necessarily confided.

SECTION IV. PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

CHAPTER I.

FINANCIAL SITUATION OF THE KINGDOM AT THE BEGINNING OF THE PRESENT CENTURY.

Financial condition at the close of 18th Century—Triple Assessment—Income-tax imposed—Repealed—Enormous Government Expenditure—Fallacious show of Prosperity—Misery of the Working Classes—Their diminished command of the necessaries of life—Effect of Mechanical Inventions in supporting the country under difficulties.

IN order to give an intelligible account of the financial state of the kingdom at the beginning of the present century, it is necessary to explain briefly the system which had been brought into operation by Mr. Pitt during the preceding three years.

In November, 1797, that minister had recourse to what he was pleased to call "a perfectly new and solid system of finance." The public expenditure of that year amounted to 25½ millions, of which sum only 6½ millions were provided for by existing unmortgaged taxes, leaving 19 millions to be raised by extraordinary means. In the then condition of the money-market it was felt to be impossible to borrow such an amount in the ordinary manner, that is, providing by new taxes for the payment of only the permanent annual burthen occasioned by the increased debt; and a new impost, calculated to pro-

duce seven millions, was sanctioned by parliament, which impost was to be continued until it should, in conjunction with the produce of the sinking-fund, repay the twelve millions that would be still deficient. This new system of finance might have been entitled to the character given of it by Mr. Pitt, if it had not been probable—nay, certain, that in the following years an equal expenditure must be met by similar means, until the seven millions would prove inadequate even for the payment of the annual interest of the sums for which the tax was imposed, when it would become part of the permanent burthens of the country. This new impost, to which the name of "triple assessment" was given, was in fact an addition made to the assessed taxes, "in a triplicate proportion to their previous amount—limited, however, to the tenth of each person's income."

The adoption of this, or some similar plan of financial arrangement, was hardly a matter of choice with the minister, by whom the funding system, as ordinarily practised, could not have been any further pursued at that time. Unfortunately for the success of the principle which it was thus sought to establish, the mode in which it was proposed to raise the seven millions of additional revenue was highly unpopular, and indeed it has always excited dissatisfaction on the part of the public to be called on for the payment of any tax from which they have not the power to protect themselves, by abstaining from the use of the taxed commodity. It is this consideration which has always made our finance ministers prefer indirect to direct taxation, and which led, during the progress of a long and expensive war, to the imposition of duties that weighed with destructive force upon the springs of industry. The financial difficulties by which the Government was then embarrassed may be known from the fact

that a loan of three millions was raised in April, 1798, at the rate of 200*l.* 3 per cent. stock, and 5*s.* long annuity for each 100*l.* borrowed, being at the rate of 6½ per cent., and that the "triple assessment," which was calculated to produce 7 millions, yielded no more than 4½ millions. In the following December the triple assessment was repealed, and in lieu of it an income-tax was imposed at the rate of 10 per cent. upon all incomes amounting to 200*l.* and upwards, with diminishing rates upon smaller incomes, down to 60*l.* per annum, below which rate the tax was not to apply. This tax was estimated to produce 10 millions: it was called a war tax; but, when the minister proceeded to mortgage its produce to defray the interest of loans to a large amount, such a name appeared to be little better than a delusion. Like the triple assessment, the produce of the income-tax fell greatly short of its estimated amount, and yielded no more than 7 millions, a large part of which was quickly absorbed to defray the interest of loans for which it was successively pledged. In 1801, after deducting the sums thus chargeable on it, this tax produced only 4 millions towards the national expenditure. In proposing a loan of 25½ millions for the service of that year, it was considered inexpedient to mortgage the income-tax any further, and new taxes were imposed estimated to yield 1,800,000*l.* per annum. In March, 1802, peace was made with France, and in the same month notice was given by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Addington, of his intention to repeal the income-tax, which was felt to be highly oppressive, and had become more and more odious to the people. In effecting this repeal, and at the same time to keep faith with the public creditors, to whom its produce had been mortgaged to the extent of 56½ millions of 3 per cent.

stock, additional taxes were imposed upon beer, malt, and hops, and a considerable increase was made to the assessed taxes, besides which an addition under the name of a modification was made to the tax on imports and exports, previously known under the name of the convoy duty.

At this time the aggregate amount of permanent taxes was 38½ millions, exactly double what it had been at the breaking out of the war in 1793. During those nine years, taxes to the amount of 280,000,000*l.*, exclusive of the cost of collection, had been levied from the people; and a few words are necessary in order to account for the seeming contradiction implied in the fact, that, notwithstanding this ruinous rate of expenditure, many of the great interests throughout the country wore the outward appearance of prosperity. A nation engaged in an expensive war, which calls for the systematic expenditure of large sums beyond its income, may be likened to an individual spendthrift during his career of riot and extravagance;—all about him wears the aspect of plenty and prosperity, and this appearance will continue until his means begin to fail, and those who have fattened upon his profusion are at length sent away empty. The enormous expenditure of the Government, joined to the state of the currency (as already explained), necessarily caused a general and great rise of prices: as regarded agricultural produce this effect was exaggerated by the ungenial nature of the seasons. Rents had risen throughout the country in a far greater degree than the necessary expenditure of the land-owners, who thence found their situations improved, notwithstanding the additional load of taxation. The great number of contractors and other persons dealing with the government had derived a positive benefit from the public ex-

penditure, and, being chiefly resident at the seat of government, they were enabled greatly to influence the tone of public opinion. The greater command of money thus given to considerable classes occasioned an increased demand for luxuries of foreign and domestic production, from which the merchants and dealers derived advantage. There were besides, other classes of persons who profited from the war expenditure. These were the producers of manufactured goods, and those who dealt in them, and who found their dealings greatly increased by means of the foreign expenditure of the government in subsidies and expeditions, the means for which were furnished through those dealings: the manufacturers were at the same time beginning to reap the advantages that have since been experienced in a more considerable degree from the series of inventions begun by Hargreaves and Arkwright, and which acted in some degree as palliatives to the evil effects of the government profusion.

As in the case of the spendthrift, while all these causes were in operation, there was an appearance of prosperity, and those who were profiting from this state of things were anxious to keep up the delusion. That it was no more than delusion will be at once apparent to all who examine below the surface, and who inquire as to the condition of poverty and wretchedness into which the great mass of the people were then plunged. In some few cases there had been an advance of wages, but this occurred only to skilled artisans, and even with them the rise was wholly incommensurate with the increased cost of all the necessaries of life. The mere labourer—he who had nothing to bring to market but his limbs and sinews—did not participate in this partial compensation for high prices, but was, in most cases, an

eager competitor for employment, at the same or nearly the same wages as had been given before the war. Nor could it well be otherwise, since the demand for labour can only increase with the increase of the capital destined for the payment of wages; and we have seen that capital so far from being suffered to accumulate was dissipated by the government expenditure more rapidly than it could be accumulated by individuals. In London and its vicinity the rates of wages are necessarily higher, because of the greater expense of living, than in country districts; and it is asserted, from personal knowledge of the fact, that at the time in question there was a superabundant supply of labourers constantly competing for employment at the large government establishments, where the weekly wages did not exceed 15*s.*, while the price of the quartern loaf was 1*s.* 10*d.*, and the other necessary outgoings of a labourer's family were nearly as high in proportion. If we contrast the weekly wages at the two periods of 1790 and 1800 of husbandry labourers and of skilled artisans, measuring them both by the quantity of wheat which they could command, it will be seen that the former could, in 1790, purchase 82 pints of wheat, and in 1800 could procure no more than 53 pints, while the skilled artisan, who in 1790 could buy 169 pints, could procure in 1800 only 83 pints. To talk of the prosperous state of the country under such a condition of things involves a palpable contradiction. It would be more correct to liken the situation of the community to that of the inhabitants of a town subjected to a general conflagration, in which some became suddenly enriched by carrying off the valuables, while the mass were involved in ruin and destitution.

It may be objected to the view here taken, but which

is founded upon facts that hardly admit of controversy, that, had the condition of the country been such as is represented, we must have sunk under the greater efforts we were so soon after called on to sustain; and there is every reason to believe, that, but for the invention of the spinning-jenny, and the improvements in the steam-engine, which have produced such almost magical effects upon the productive energies of this kingdom, it would have been impossible to have withstood the combination with which, single-handed, we were called upon to contend. The manner and degree in which these powerful agents have enabled us to withstand and to triumph over difficulties unparalleled in the history of the world, have been shown in a preceding section of this inquiry.

Chapter II.

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Gigantic Expenditure during the war—Consequent exhaustion—Gloomy forebodings of political writers in former times—Amount of debt 1793 to 1816—Yearly Income and Expenditure 1792 to 1836—Debts contracted 1801 to 1821—Sinking Fund—Dead-weight Annuity—Conversion of perpetual into terminable Annuities—Expenditure beyond Income during the war—Income beyond Expenditure since—Plans of Finance—Budgets.

The public expenditure of England during the war which was begun in 1793, and was continued (with short intermissions in 1801 and 1814) until the final overthrow of Napoleon in 1815, was conducted throughout upon a truly gigantic scale. In 1792, the last year of peace, the entire public expenditure of the kingdom was 19,859,123*l.*, which sum included 9,767,333*l.* interest upon the public debt. In 1814 the current expenditure amounted to 76,780,895*l.*, and the interest upon the debt to 30,051,365*l.*, making an aggregate sum of 106,832,260*l.* paid out of the public Exchequer for the disbursements of that one year. This is the largest annual outlay ever made; that of the previous year was within one million of the same amount.

It is hardly possible to conceive that the public expenditure could have been long continued upon this scale of magnitude; the state of exhaustion under which the country was made to suffer, during the first few years of the peace that followed, sufficiently attests the truth of this opinion. The financial efforts of the government

had been made for several preceding years with a degree of lavish profusion that was continually augmented until it reached the height above mentioned: the expenditure, including interest upon the debt, during the ten years from 1806 to 1815 inclusive, averaged 84,067,761*l.* per annum, sums which, until the years in which they were actually expended, it would have been considered wholly chimerical to expect to raise. The experience of that period has shown how impossible a thing it is to judge correctly from the past as to the growing resources of our country, or it might be confidently affirmed that, during the concluding years of this series, we had assuredly reached the limit of possibility. Without that experience for their guidance, our ancestors, in former but not very remote times, gave way to gloomy forebodings as to their future prospects, at which we cannot but smile, when thinking of the comparatively pigmy efforts which called them forth. Some of those forebodings have been recorded by Sir John Sinclair, in his work on the public revenue of this kingdom. A few passages upon the subject taken from that work, and with the dates at which they were written, may not be without interest to the reader at the present moment.

1736. "The vast load of debt under which the nation still groans is the true source of all those calamities and gloomy prospects of which we have so much reason to complain. To this has been owing that multiplicity of burthensome taxes, which have more than doubled the price of the common necessaries of life within a few years past, and thereby distressed the poor labourer and manufacturer, disabled the farmer to pay his rent, and put even gentlemen of plentiful estates under the greatest difficulties to make a tolerable provision for their families."—The *Craftsman*, No. 502, 14th February, 1736.

At the time this gloomy picture was drawn the public debt did not exceed 50,000,000*l.*, and the annual charge on that account was somewhat under 2,000,000*l.*, being considerably below the sums added to the public burthens in the single year 1814.

1749. "Our parliamentary aids, from the year 1740 exclusively, to the year 1748 inclusively, amount to 55,522,159*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.*, a sum that will appear incredible to future generations, and is so almost to the present. Till we have paid a good part of our debt, and restored our country in some measure to her former wealth and power, it will be difficult to maintain the dignity of great Britain, to make her respected abroad, and secure from injuries or even affronts on the part of her neighbours."—*Some Reflections on the present State of the Nation*, by Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke.

The debt, to the effects of which so much evil is here attributed, was still under 80,000,000*l.*, and the annual interest scarcely more than 3,000,000*l.*

1756. "It has been a generally received notion among political arithmeticians, that we may increase our debt to 100,000,000*l.*, but they acknowledge that it must then cease, by the debtor becoming bankrupt."—Letters by Samuel Hannay, Esq.

In the few years that preceded the publication of Mr. Hannay's letters the debt had been somewhat diminished, so that it amounted to about 75,000,000*l.*, and the annual charge on the country to 2,400,000*l.*

1761. "The first instance of a debt contracted upon parliamentary security occurs in the reign of Henry VI. The commencement of this pernicious practice deserves to be noted; a practice the more likely to become pernicious the more a nation advances in opulence and credit. The ruinous effects of it are now become ap-

parent, and threaten the very existence of the nation."—Hume's *History of England*, 8vo. edition, 1778, vol. iii. p. 215.

The public burthens had by this time so far exceeded the possible limit assigned by Mr. Hannay, that the debt amounted to nearly 150,000,000*l.*, and the annual interest to 4,800,000*l.* The amount was somewhat reduced between that period and the breaking out of the American war, when a succession of loans again became necessary. On winding up the accounts of that contest, the debt amounted to 268,000,000*l.*, and the annual charge to 9,500,000*l.* On the 5th of January, 1793, just before the beginning of the war of the French Revolution, the debt continued nearly the same as at the beginning of the peace (the exact amount of funded and unfunded debt, including the value of terminable annuities, was 261,735,059*l.*, and the annual charge was 9,471,675*l.*) From that time to the peace of Amiens hardly a year passed without witnessing some increase to the national burthens, so that at Midsummer 1802, the capital of the funded and unfunded debt amounted to 637,000,000*l.* On the 5th January, 1816, the capital was 885,186,323*l.*, and the annual charge was 32,457,141*l.* The following statements exhibit the progressive state of the public income and expenditure from 1792 to 1836, including the annual charge on account of the public debt, and the amount of money raised by loans and the funding of Exchequer Bills, with the amount and description of stock created, and the annual charge in respect of the same, in each year from the beginning of the present century.

Abstract of Public Income and Expenditure in the United Kingdom, in each year, from 1792 to 1836.

Years.	Income.			Expenditure.			
	Amount of Revenue paid into the Exchequer, the produce of taxation.	Amount received on account of Loans and Exchequer Bills, beyond the amount redeemed in the year.	Total amount raised for public uses.	Interest paid on public debt, funded and unfunded.	Sums applied to redemption of public debt beyond the amount of loans, &c. in the year.	Current annual public expenditure.	Total amount paid and expended in the year.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1792	19,258,814	...	19,258,814	9,767,333	2,421,681	7,670,109	19,859,123
1793	19,845,705	4,877,956	24,723,661	9,437,862	...	14,759,208	24,197,070
1794	20,193,074	6,998,389	27,191,463	9,890,904	...	17,851,213	27,742,117
1795	19,883,520	30,464,831	50,348,351	10,810,728	...	37,603,449	48,414,177
1796	21,454,728	22,244,982	43,699,710	11,841,204	...	30,334,087	42,175,291
1797	23,126,940	30,356,873	53,483,813	14,270,616	...	36,469,993	50,740,609
1798	31,035,363	16,858,503	47,893,866	17,585,518	...	33,541,727	51,127,245
1799	35,602,444	21,714,863	57,317,307	17,220,983	...	38,403,421	55,624,404
1800	34,145,584	23,030,529	57,176,113	17,381,561	...	39,439,706	56,821,267
1801	34,113,146	27,305,271	61,418,417	19,945,624	...	41,383,555	61,329,179
1802	36,368,149	14,638,254	51,006,403	19,855,588	...	29,693,619	49,549,207
1803	38,609,392	8,752,761	47,362,153	20,699,864	...	28,298,366	48,998,230
1804	46,176,492	14,570,763	60,747,255	20,726,772	...	38,649,436	59,376,208
1805	50,897,706	16,849,801	67,747,507	22,141,426	...	45,027,892	67,169,318
1806	55,796,086	13,035,344	71,831,430	23,000,006	...	45,941,205	68,941,211
1807	59,339,321	10,432,934	69,772,255	23,362,685	...	44,250,357	67,613,042
1808	62,998,191	12,095,044	75,093,235	23,158,982	...	49,984,105	73,143,087
1809	63,719,400	12,298,379	76,017,779	24,213,867	...	52,352,146	76,566,013
1810	67,144,542	7,792,444	74,936,986	24,246,946	...	52,618,602	76,865,548
1811	65,173,545	19,143,953	84,317,498	24,977,915	...	58,757,308	83,735,223
1812	65,037,850	24,790,697	89,828,547	25,546,508	...	63,210,816	88,757,324
1813	68,748,363	39,649,282	108,397,645	28,030,239	...	77,913,488	105,943,727
1814	71,134,503	34,563,603	105,698,106	30,051,365	...	76,780,895	106,832,260
1815	72,210,512	20,241,807	92,452,319	31,576,074	...	60,704,106	92,280,180
1816	62,264,546	514,059	62,778,605	32,938,751	...	32,231,020	65,169,771
1817	52,055,913	...	52,055,913	31,436,245	1,826,814	22,018,179	55,281,238
1818	53,747,795	...	53,747,795	30,880,244	1,624,606	20,843,728	53,348,578
1819	52,648,847	...	52,648,847	30,807,249	3,163,130	21,436,130	55,406,509
1820	54,282,958	...	54,282,958	31,157,846	1,918,019	21,381,382	54,457,247
1821	55,834,192	...	55,834,192	31,955,204	4,104,457	21,070,823	57,130,586
1822	55,663,650	...	55,663,650	29,921,493	2,962,564	20,826,567	53,710,624
1823	57,672,999	...	57,672,999	29,215,905	5,261,725	21,746,110	56,223,740
1824	59,362,403	...	59,362,403	29,066,350	6,456,559	23,708,252	59,231,161
1825	57,273,869	...	57,273,869	28,060,287	9,900,725	23,559,741	61,520,753
1826	54,894,989	...	54,894,989	28,076,957	1,195,531	25,808,585	55,081,073
1827	54,932,518	...	54,932,518	28,239,847	2,023,028	25,560,446	55,823,321
1828	55,187,142	...	55,187,142	28,095,506	4,667,963	21,407,670	54,171,141
1829	50,786,682	...	50,786,682	29,155,612	2,760,003	19,919,522	51,845,137
1830	50,056,616	...	50,056,616	29,118,858	1,935,465	18,024,085	49,078,108
1831	46,424,440	...	46,424,440	28,341,416	2,673,858	18,781,882	49,797,156
1832	46,988,755	333,989	47,322,744	28,323,751	5,696	18,050,245	46,379,692
1833	46,271,326	...	46,271,326	28,322,507	1,023,784	16,235,735	45,782,026
1834	46,425,263	...	46,425,263	28,501,09	1,776,378	16,397,605	46,678,079
1835	45,893,369	...	45,893,369	28,514,610	1,270,050	15,884,649	45,669,309
1836	48,591,180	...	48,591,180	29,243,598	1,590,727	17,258,871	48,093,196

Years.	Amount of Money raised on Loan.	Amount of Exchequer Bills Funded.	Amount and Description of Stock Created.					Rate of Interest per cent. for Money.	Amount of Annual Charge Incurred.
			3 per cent.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	Total of Perpetual Annuities.	Annuities to terminate in 1860.		
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£. s. d.	£.
1801	20,500,000	.....	32,185,000	.....	.....	32,185,000	.....	4 14 2	965,550
1802	28,000,000	.....	49,210,000	.....	.....	49,210,000	.....	5 5 5½	1,476,300
,,	.....	8,910,450	4,455,225	4,455,225	2,227,612	11,138,062	7,796	4 16 7¾	431,043
1803	25,000,000	.....	32,990,625	.....	.....	32,990,625	.....	3 19 2	989,718
1804	12,000,000	.....	19,200,000	.....	.....	19,200,000	38,500	5 2 0	614,500
1805	14,500,000	.....	26,390,000	.....	.....	26,390,000	.....	5 9 2	791,700
1806	22,500,000	.....	38,700,000	.....	.....	38,700,000	.....	5 3 2	1,161,000
,,	1,500,000	.....	.....	.....	360,000	360,000	75,000	5 17 0½	93,000
1807	20,000,000	.....	33,200,000	.....	.....	33,200,000	.....	4 19 7	996,000
1808	14,200,000	.....	19,880,000	.....	1,505,200	21,385,200	.....	4 14 7	744,948
,,	1,500,000	.....	2,409,625	.....	.....	2,409,625	.....	4 16 4¼	72,288
1809	.....	4,000,000	.....	237,900	4,001,353	4,239,253	.....	5 4 9¼	209,583
,,	10,500,000	.....	.....	12,408,375	.....	12,408,375	.....	4 14 6½	496,335
1810	.....	7,932,100	.....	380,336	7,873,308	8,253,644	.....	5 3 1	408,878
,,	14,600,000	.....	8,760,000	8,760,000	.....	17,520,000	64,483	4 12 1	677,683
1811	13,400,000	8,311,000	18,810,250	.....	8,581,107	27,391,357	.....	4 11 6	903,362
1812	.....	12,000,000	.....	.....	12,444,712	12,444,712	.....	5 3 8	622,236
,,	12,000,000	.....	14,400,000	2,400,000	.....	16,800,000	41,500	4 14 1¼	569,500
1813	22,500,000	12,075,043	39,600,000	.....	13,199,031	52,799,031	.....	5 6 10¼	1,847,951
1814	49,000,000	15,755,700	84,840,000	5,220,423	13,860,000	103,920,423	89,250	5 10 0	3,561,767
1815	24,000,000	.....	24,840,000	.....	7,200,000	32,040,000	.....	4 12 1	1,105,200
1816	36,000,000	18,189,982	62,640,000	3,600,000	21,208,402	87,448,402	.....	5 13 10	3,083,620
1819	.....	27,262,000	34,895,360	.....	.....	34,895,360	.....	3 16 10	1,046,860
1820	12,000,000	.....	17,152,000	.....	.....	17,152,000	.....	4 5 9	514,560
1821	5,000,000	7,000,000	7,110,000	.....	6,930,000	14,040,000	.....	4 11 7¼	559,800

An extraordinary degree of delusion is observable in the proceedings of the different finance ministers by whom the support of the sinking-fund was advocated during the war. It has been pretended that the purchases made by means of that fund had the effect of keeping up the market value of the public debt, and thereby enabled the minister to contract loans upon more advantageous terms than, without this machinery, would have been possible. It may well be doubted, however, whether the repurchase in this manner, from time to time, of parts only of that surplus portion of the public debt which was created for the express purpose of such operations, had any real effect in raising the price of the remaining portion of the public securities—in other words, whether the price, thus factitiously acted upon, of the larger amount of debt, was at any time greater than the price would have been of the smaller amount of debt that would have existed if the sinking-fund had not been created, the purchases of the Commissioners never having in fact accomplished more than the repurchase of the so-needlessly-created part of the debt. It has been further urged in defence of the sinking-fund, that the prospect which it enabled the minister to hold out of the speedy redemption of the whole debt had the effect of reconciling the people to the payment of a larger amount of taxes than they would otherwise have been willing to pay. Allowing that the effect here stated was produced, we may still doubt the wisdom of that government which is obliged to resort to a juggle in order to reconcile the people to its measures, and especially when, as in the case under examination, the delusion was so expensive and likely to prove so permanently injurious in its nature.

The average rate at which 3 per cent. stock was created

between 1793 and 1801 was 57*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* of money for 100*l.* stock, and the average market price during that period was 61*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* for 100*l.* stock. The loss to the public upon the additional sum borrowed in order that it might be redeemed during that period, which was 49,655,531*l.*, amounted to 4½ per cent., or 2,234,500*l.* Between 1803 and the termination of the war the average price at which loans were contracted was 60*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* per 100*l.* stock, and the average market price during that time was 62*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* per 100*l.* The loss was, therefore, 2½ per cent. upon the sum redeemed during that time, 176,173,240*l.*, or 4,404,331*l.*, making together an amount of 6,638,831*l.* absolutely lost to the public by these operations. This amount, reckoned at the average price of the various loans, is equivalent to a capital of more than eleven millions of 3 per cent. stock, with which the country is now additionally burthened through the measure of borrowing in a depressed market more money than was wanted in order to its being repaid when the market for public securities was certain to be higher. The fallacy attending this system is now so fully recognised that it is not likely any minister will in future make a show of redeeming debt at the moment when circumstances compel him actually to increase its amount for that purpose.

Another error of a still more important nature, involved in this system, remains to be noticed. The absurdity of borrowing money in order to extinguish debt could never have been seriously adopted but with the anticipation of the good effects that might be drawn from such a course after the necessity for further borrowing should cease, when it might be beneficial to apply towards the redemption of the debt the high scale of taxation which that system rendered practi-

cable. There never could have existed any doubt of the fact, that whenever the necessity for borrowing should cease, the market value of the public funds would advance greatly, and would therefore in an equal degree limit the redeeming power of the surplus income however arising. The knowledge of this fact should have led the ministers, by whom successive additions were made to the public debt, to the adoption of a course which would have enabled them to turn this rise of prices to the advantage of the public, instead of its being, as it has proved, productive of loss, and this end would certainly have been accomplished, if at the expense of a small present sacrifice the loans had been contracted at a high rate of interest, instead of their having been contracted, as for the most part they were, in 3 per cent. annuities. It is presumable that, if the borrowing had been restricted to the sums actually wanted from time to time, without thought of a sinking-fund, the public might possibly have had to pay at the outside a quarter per cent. more of annual interest than they actually paid. At this rate the deficiency of income compared with expenditure, between 1793 and 1815, which amounted, as will be shown in the next Table, to 425,482,761*l.*, would have occasioned an addition to the capital of the debt to the amount of 455,266,554*l.* of 5 per cent. stock, the annual interest of which would have been 22,763,327*l.*, instead of a nominal capital of 547,292,764*l.*, with the annual additional charge of 20,690,871*l.* At the close of the war the nominal capital of the debt would have then amounted to 724,285,729*l.*, and the annual charge to 32,530,660*l.*, instead of 816,311,939*l.* of capital, and 30,458,204*l.* of annual charge, which was the state of the unredeemed public debt on the 5th January, 1816. The government would then have been in the most fa-

vourable position for taking advantage of the lowering of the rate of interest which was certain to follow, and many years before the present time the whole of the 5 per cent. annuities might have been converted, without any addition to the capital, into annuities of the same amount, bearing interest at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., or perhaps lower. Assuming, however, that the reduction would not have gone lower than $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and taking into consideration the surplus revenue which has been actually applied to the redemption of debt since 5th January, 1816, which, as will be seen, has amounted to 46,086,321*l.*, the funded debt existing on 5th January, 1837, would have amounted to 678,199,408*l.*, and the annual charge to 23,736,979*l.*, instead of its actual amount, 761,422,570*l.*, and its actual annual charge, 29,234,873*l.*; showing that the loss entailed on the country by the plan pursued, of funding the debt in stock bearing a nominal low rate of interest, is 83,223,162*l.* of capital, and 5,497,894*l.* of annual charge. It is not possible to calculate with certainty the further benefits that must have resulted from the repeal of five millions and a half of annual taxes, which would have been practicable beyond the amount actually repealed, but it is probably much under-estimating those benefits to state, that among their results the amount of public income over expenditure would have been so far augmented that the unredeemed debt would not at this time have exceeded six hundred millions, while the annual charge upon the same would have been twenty-one millions, a state of things at which, if the peace of Europe should continue undisturbed, and if our progress should only equal our past experience, we may possible hope to arrive in about half a century.

The charge of inconsistency on the part of our finance ministers is fully deserved by their adoption of two

measures having for their objects results exactly opposed to each other. These measures are, first, the creation of what is called the dead weight annuity, and secondly, the conversion of perpetual annuities into annuities for lives or for terms of years; the effect of the first being to bring present relief at the expense of future years, while the second increases the present burthen with the view of relieving posterity. When the measure for commuting the half-pay and pensions was brought forward in May, 1822, the charge upon the country on that account was estimated at about five millions. This was necessarily a decreasing charge, and from year to year the public would have been relieved by the falling in of lives, until at the end of forty-five years the whole, according to probability, would have been extinguished. In order to turn to present advantage this prospective diminution of burthen, it was attempted to commute the whole of those annually diminishing payments for an unvarying annuity to last during the whole probable term of forty-five years, and it was computed that, by the sale of a fixed annuity of 2,800,000*l.*, funds might be obtained in order to meet the diminishing demands of the quarterly claimants. This scheme was only partially carried into execution by means of an arrangement made with the Bank of England, under which that corporation advanced to the government, in nearly equal payments, during the six years from 1823 to 1828, the sum of 13,089,419*l.* as the purchase-money of an annual annuity of 585,740*l.* to be paid until 1867. The result of this operation has been to save the immediate payment during the years in which it was in progress of 9,574,979*l.*, and in return to fix upon the country the annual payment for thirty-nine years thereafter of 585,740*l.*

In the prosecution of the opposite plan of converting

perpetual annuities into annuities terminable at stated periods, or upon the occurrence of certain natural contingencies, the amount of terminable annuities has advanced from 1,888,835*l.*, at which it stood at the end of the war, to 3,638,687*l.* It would occupy considerable space to exhibit the progress of this conversion from year to year, and it will probably suffice to exemplify the result of the operation during one year (1834). In that year the perpetual annuities received in exchange amounted to 6,500,169*l.* of capital, bearing an annual charge of 202,831*l.*, and there were granted in lieu of the same—

Annuities for lives . . .	£195,337
——— for terms of years . .	313,138
Deferred annuities . . .	2,871
Together . .	£511,346

making a present annual increase of 308,514*l.* to the public burthens in order to insure the earlier extinction of the charge of 202,831*l.*

It is not necessary here to inquire which of these two modes of proceeding is preferable. Under different circumstances either of them might be wise or prudent, but it is quite impossible that at the same time, and consequently under the same circumstances, both could be either wise or prudent, and the minister and legislators by whom the plans were proposed and sanctioned must be allowed to have stultified themselves by the operations. Of the two courses that is assuredly the most generous which subjects the parties by whom it is adopted to additional burthen in order to lighten the load for their successors, and indeed it would seem no more than an act of justice on the part of those by whom the debt was contracted to adopt every means within their power for its extinction.

It is singular that, with so much experience and so much of scientific acquirement that could have been brought to the correct elucidation of this subject, the tables adopted for the creation of terminable annuities were incorrect, to a degree which entailed a heavy loss upon the public. The system was established in 1808, and during the first year of its operation annuities were granted to the amount of 58,506*l.* 10*s.* per annum. Of that amount there continued payable 23,251*l.* per annum at the beginning of 1827, when, to adopt the calculation of the actuary of the national debt, as given in a report to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the public had already sustained a loss of more than 10,000*l.* by the transactions, besides having the above annual sum of 23,251*l.* still to pay for an indefinite term. In this report of Mr. Finlaison he states that the loss to the public through miscalculation in these tables was then (April, 1827) proceeding at the rate of 8000*l.* per week, and during the three preceding months had exceeded 95,000*l.* The discovery of this blunder had been made and pressed upon the attention of the finance minister as early as 1819, but no active steps were taken to remedy it until 1828, and even then the rates at which annuities were granted upon the lives of aged persons were, after a time, found to be so unduly profitable to the purchasers, that the government was again obliged to interfere and to limit the ages upon which life annuities could be obtained.

It is quite impossible that any similar series of blunders could have been committed by any private persons or by association of individuals, whose vigilance would have been sufficiently preserved by their private interest; and it is disgraceful that the government, which could at all times command the assistance of the most accomplished actuaries, should have fallen into them. It is yet more

disgraceful that, after the evil had been discovered and pressed upon its notice, so many years were suffered to elapse before any step was taken to put a stop to the waste of public money.

It would require a voluminous account to explain all the financial operations of the government during the period embraced in the foregoing statements. In the earlier years of that time, while on the one hand the minister was annually borrowing immense sums for the public service, an expensive machinery was, as we have seen, employed to keep up a show of diminishing the debt, and by this means the people were brought to view with some degree of complacency the most ruinous addition to their burthens, under the expectation of the relief which through the magical effect of the sinking-fund was to be experienced by them in future years. The establishment and support of this sinking-fund was long considered as a master-stroke of human wisdom. Having since had sufficient opportunity for considering its effects, we have arrived at a different conclusion, and can no longer see any wisdom in the plan of borrowing larger sums than were wanted, and paying in consequence more dearly for the loan of what was actually required, in order to lay out the surplus to accumulate into a fund for buying up the debt at a higher price than that at which it was contracted.

In the fourth report of the Select Committee on Public Income and Expenditure, which was printed by order of the House of Commons in 1828, there are three statements showing the difference between the public receipts and disbursements in the ten years ended 5th January, 1802; the fourteen years ended 5th January, 1816; and the twelve years ended 5th January, 1828; an abstract of which is here given, and the statement is further continued for the nine years ended 5th January, 1837:—

BALANCE OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Ten Years ended 5th January, 1802.

Expenditure	£447,812,773	Raised by creation of debt		£380,997,380
Income	258,659,322	Applied to redemption of debt	180,346,440	
		Money raised for Austria	4,600,000	
		Discount & charges of receipt	2,416,497	
				187,362,937
				193,634,443
		Balance 5th January, 1802	9,027,021	
		Ditto ditto, 1792	4,546,029	
				4,480,992
Expenditure more than income	£189,153,451			£189,153,451

Fourteen Years ended 5th January, 1816.

Expenditure	1,059,683,370	Raised by creation of debt		900,107,717
Income	823,354,060	Applied to redemption of debt	651,952,651	
		Raised for East India Company	2,500,000	
		Discount, &c.	2,887,199	
				657,339,850
				242,767,867
		Balance 5th January, 1816	15,465,578	
		Ditto ditto, 1802	9,027,021	
				6,438,557
Expenditure more than income	£236,329,310			£236,329,310

Twelve Years ended 5th January, 1828.

Income	670,198,286	Applied to redemption of debt		580,454,452
Expenditure	640,966,521	Discount & charges of receipt		544,588
				580,999,040
		Raised by creation of debt		540,530,450
				40,468,590
		Balance 5th January, 1816	15,465,578	
		Ditto ditto, 1828	4,228,753	
				11,236,825
Income more than expenditure	£29,231,765			£29,231,765

Nine Years ended 5th January, 1837.

Income	436,624,773	Applied to redemption of debt, beyond the amount of debt created		15,033,936
Expenditure	419,770,217	Balance 5th January, 1837	6,049,373	
		Ditto ditto, 1828	4,228,753	
				1,820,620
Income more than expenditure	£16,854,556			£16,854,556

It appears from this statement, that during the 10 years from 1792 to 1802—

The Public Expenditure exceeded the Income .	189,153,451
Between 1802 and 1816, the excess of Expenditure was	236,329,310
Excess of Expenditure during 24 years of war .	425,482,761
During 21 years of peace between 1816 and 1837, the excess of Income over Expenditure has been	46,086,321

At this rate it would require 190 years of peace to cancel the debt incurred during 24 years of war, or 8 years for 1, but the comparison is even more unfavourable than this, because at the time of borrowing the rate of interest is high and the value of public securities low, whereas at the time of liquidation the reverse of these circumstances is experienced, so that on the most favourable supposition it requires 10 years of saving in peace to repair the evil consequences of one year of war expenditure; at which rate, our successors who may be living about the middle of the 21st century will find themselves relieved from that portion of the public debt which has been contracted since 1792.

It is necessary here to explain briefly the financial plans which have at different times within the present century been proposed by the government and sanctioned by parliament.

At the breaking out of the war in 1803, it became necessary to meet as far as possible the increased expenditure of the country by the imposition of new taxes, among which was included the income-tax, under the name of a property-tax. The greater part of these taxes were declared to be of a temporary character, and were to cease in six months after the re-establishment of peace. It soon became apparent, however, that to

adhere to this stipulation would be impossible, since the exigences of the country required the contraction of loans, the interest of which could not be provided, except by the gradual appropriation of one portion after another of the proceeds of the war taxes. Under these circumstances, it was proposed in 1807, by Lord Henry Petty, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, to depart from the usual practice of confining the financial arrangements to the current year, and to determine at once, as far as was possible, the amount which it would be necessary to raise during each one of a series of years, providing beforehand the means for meeting the increasing burthen. It was assumed that the loans to be raised in 1807 and the two following years should be each 12,000,000*l.*; that for 1810 was stated at 14,000,000*l.*, and during each of the 10 ensuing years the amount was assumed at 16,000,000*l.* It was calculated that the interest upon those loans would be met, up to that for the year 1811, by the falling in of annuities, after which, the war taxes were to be pledged, at the rate of 10 per cent. upon each loan; 5 per cent. to pay the interest, and 5 per cent. to accumulate as a sinking-fund for discharging the principal. The deficiency that would be occasioned by this appropriation year by year of the war taxes was to be met by supplementary loans, for the interest on which, and to provide a sinking-fund for their redemption, it would be necessary to impose new taxes. By these means it was expected that the country would have been able to meet the charges of an expensive war during a series of years with only a moderate addition to the public burthens. The ministry of which Lord Henry Petty formed a part having gone out of office before the next annual finance arrangement was brought forward, his plan was abandoned, and no attempt has since

been made by any minister to form financial arrangements embracing the circumstances of future years.

The explanations offered each year in the House of Commons by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, concerning the financial condition of the country, are not given in such a form as to be readily understood. In the accounts by which the statements are accompanied, the interest of the debt and other permanent charges are not included, and on the other hand nothing is stated regarding the produce of the permanent taxes, forming what is called the consolidated fund, except the amount of its surplus or deficiency, as the case may be, after providing for the permanent charge upon it. The *Budget*, as it is the practice to call this annual exposition, explains on the one hand the sums required for the public service during the year, under the different heads of Navy, Army, Ordnance and Miscellaneous Services, together with any incidental charges which may apply to the year; and on the other hand are given the *ways and means* for meeting the same. These ways and means consist of the surplus (if any) of the consolidated fund, the annual duties, and such incidental receipts as come in aid of the national resources.

The detail of these *budgets* would consequently throw but little light upon the financial condition of the country, if even they had been preserved in an authentic form, which has not been done. Any statements of the kind that could be offered must be drawn from unauthorised publications, in which they have been given without regard to methodical arrangement, while, as respects some years of the series, we should seek in vain for any statement whatever.

Chapter III.

PRODUCE OF TAXES.

Taxes Imposed 1801 to 1836—Taxes Repealed 1814 to 1836—Produce of Taxes in proportion to Population—Probate and Legacy Duties—Customs and Excise Duties—"Taxes"—Post-office Duties—Duties of Protection—Retaliatory Duties—Their effect on Foreign Governments.

The following tables exhibit, 1st, the estimated amount of taxes imposed under each of the five chief heads of revenue;—viz. Customs, Excise, Stamps, Taxes, and Post-office, in each year of the present century; and 2nd, the estimated amount of taxes repealed, expired, or reduced, in each year from the peace in 1814 to the present time.

Estimated Produce of Taxes imposed in each year from 1801 to 1836.

Years.	Customs.	Excise.	Stamps.	Taxes.	Post-office.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1801	255,000	435,000	574,000	306,000	150,000	1,720,000
1802	1,000,000	2,000,000	..	1,000,000	..	4,000,000
1803	2,000,000	6,000,000	..	4,500,000	..	12,500,000
1804	1,000,000	..	..	..	..	1,000,000
1805	80,000	490,000	330,000	430,000	230,000	1,560,000
1806	864,000	136,000	..	5,000,000	..	6,000,000
1807	..	..	..	..	..	..
1808	..	..	200,000	..	..	200,000
1809	..	..	..	..	..	..
1810	..	..	..	..	..	..
1811	866,600	751,000	..	..	..	1,617,600
1812	..	760,000	..	515,000	220,000	1,495,000
1813	850,000	130,000	..	..	..	980,000
1814	288,685	..	..	..	..	288,685
1815	176,772	..	..	..	..	176,772
1816	144,658	230,000	400	..	..	375,058
1817	6,691	1,300	..	..	..	7,991
1818	56	1,300	..	..	..	1,356
1819	1,137,902	1,957,000	..	..	7,400	3,102,302
1820	4,602	115,000	..	..	..	119,602
1821	..	..	42,642	..	2,200	44,842
1822	..	..	..	..	..	..
1823	..	3,800	14,796	..	..	18,596
1824	45,605	..	..	..	4,000	49,605
1825	..	43,000	..	..	5,100	48,100
1826	188,725	..	..	..	..	188,725
1827	21,402	..	..	..	..	21,402
1828	1,963	..	3	..	..	1,966
1829	..	..	..	..	..	..
1830	85,004	611,000	..	..	..	696,004
1831	626,206	..	210	1,170	..	627,586
1832	22,976	..	21,550	..	..	44,526
1833	..	..	..	..	..	..
1834	17,394	181,000	..	..	..	198,394
1835	75	..	..	..	5,500	5,575
1836	797	..	..	2,394	530	3,721

Estimated Amount of Taxes repealed, expired, or reduced, in each Year, from 1814 to 1836.

Years	Customs.	Excise.	Stamps.	Taxes.	Post-Office.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1814	932,827	..	..	..	..	932,827
1815	222,749	..	..	..	..	222,749
1816	52,888	2,863,000	..	14,631,477	..	17,547,365
1817	864	4,000	..	31,631	..	36,495
1818	..	9,000	..	504	..	9,504
1819	10,913	14,000	23,920	195,651	25,000	269,484
1820	..	4,000	..	..	..	4,000
1821	19,932	..	73	451,304	..	471,309
1822	153,146	1,745,000	2,955	238,000	..	2,139,101
1823	346,592	1,456,000	..	2,383,143	..	4,185,735
1824	1,514,844	..	274,554	11,935	..	1,801,333
1825	2,804,357	536,000	68,720	267,162	..	3,676,239
1826	766,615	1,134,200	66,400	..	..	1,967,215
1827	1,738	..	2,300	..	80,000	84,038
1828	36,327	..	15,671	..	..	51,998
1829	126,406	..	..	..	..	126,406
1830	551,470	3,506,000	..	13,272	..	4,070,742
1831	1,031,112	529,000	..	2,940	25,000	1,588,052
1832	247,746	476,500	7,162	15,856	..	747,264
1833	346,740	626,000	156,800	402,588	..	1,532,128
1834	305,817	505,200	31,204	1,222,295	..	2,064,516
1835	31,877	131,000	..	..	..	162,877
1836	143,116	536,500	310,170	..	32,000	1,021,786

The figures which apply to the earlier years in the first of these Tables (1801 to 1813) are taken from the budget-speeches of the Chancellors of the Exchequer; those which relate to the subsequent years, as well as the amounts given in the second Table, are afforded by papers prepared in the different revenue departments, and laid before Parliament.

At first sight these statements might appear in a high degree satisfactory, inasmuch as they show that the amount of duties and taxes repealed since 1814 exceeds the amount of those imposed since 1801 by more than 6½ millions. So far as these branches of the revenue are concerned, the public income in 1836 exceeded that of 1801 by 15½ millions—showing, under those heads, a virtual increase of 22 millions between the two periods.

If, however, we submit these data to a more careful examination, the result will prove far less flattering. With the view of testing the progress of this very important subject, the following statements are offered, in which the actual produce of the principal heads of taxation is given at the periods of 1811, 1821, 1831 (the years in which the census has been taken), and in 1836; and some calculations are offered to show what the produce should have been proportionally to the increase of the population of each period.

In preparing these statements, it has been found necessary to throw together the Customs and Excise duties, because of the numerous transfers effected between these two departments, as regards the collection of revenue. The produce of these two branches of revenue is generally considered to afford a good test of the condition of the people, as shown by their power of consuming the articles upon which Excise or Customs duties are charged; so that an increase in their produce has always been held to indicate an increase of comforts brought within the reach of the mass of the population. The amount of Customs and Excise duties collected in 1801 was 19,330,867*l.* Since that time new duties, amounting to 23,529,716*l.*, have been imposed, and duties that produced 23,043,860*l.* have been repealed. Under these circumstances the amount collected in 1836 was 36,042,885*l.*, being 16,226,162*l.*, or 82 per cent. beyond the collection of 1801; but in the mean while the population has increased about 59½ per cent.; and if this fact is taken into the estimate it will be found that each member of the community obtains, in 1836, a greater share of taxed articles, by about one-seventh, than he could procure in 1801. If a similar examination is made in regard to the produce of stamp-duties, and du-

ties under the management of the Board of Taxes, it will be found that under the first of these heads the increase has been 100 per cent., and under the head of Taxes the increase has been 112 per cent., against the increase already mentioned of 59½ per cent. in the numbers of the population. Under the remaining head—the Post-office—it appears that the increased revenue is under 22 per cent., or half a million of money less than it should be to bear its just proportion with the growth of the population.

That the increased consumption of taxed commodities should not be greater than one-seventh, as compared with the consumption in 1801, must strike every one with surprise, who observes the increasing power of the mass of the people to command the comforts of life; but this fact will assume a much more instructive shape by means of the following statements, which prove that, however unsatisfactory the case may be considered at this moment, it was far more so at the earlier periods to which those statements relate, and that the change for the better may be clearly referred to the modifications which of late years have been made in our tariff.—(See following Table.)

It is shown by this statement that although the amount of taxes received in 1811 was greater than the computation made, from the duties imposed, by the sum of 2,663,320*l.*, it was smaller than the amount which should have been received by 5,663,401*l.*, when we take into the account the increase which had been experienced in the numbers of our population. In 1821 the amount actually collected was 5,700,345*l.* beyond the computed amount, but 8,810,902*l.* below the sum that should have been received, considering that the population was then greater by 29¾ per cent. than it was in 1801. Between 1821 and 1831 taxes were repealed beyond what were

imposed, amounting to 17,321,404*l.*, and the effect of this reduction was immediately seen in the proportionally greater consumption of articles upon which the old or modified duties were continued. The amount received into the Exchequer in 1831 was greater than the amount by computation to the extent of 14,705,782*l.*, and was within 550,325*l.* of the sum which it should have reached, considering the increased number by whom it was contributed. It will further be seen that in 1836, when the public burthens had been still further reduced by 4,981,261*l.*, the amount of duties and taxes received was greater than it should have been by computation to the extent of 22,072,804*l.*, and greater also by 6,320,399*l.* than the remaining taxes would have yielded at the same rate of consumption by the increased numbers of the people.

At each of the four periods embraced in the foregoing calculations, the produce of stamp-duties was materially beyond the amount which they were computed to yield, and even beyond that which they should have yielded, taking into consideration the increase of the population. This result is no doubt ascribable to the operation of the probate and legacy duties, which are collected under the management of the Stamp-office. It is in the nature of these duties to be—more than almost any others—unavoidable. If a heavy tax is laid upon wine, or upon male servants, or any similar object, every one has it in his power to avoid the payment, by foregoing the use of the taxed article; but as every one must die, and must leave his property behind him, and as few persons, comparatively, like to quit the world without making such a disposition of their possessions as is dictated by a sense of justice, or by feelings of friendship and affection, the cases will be few in number wherein property,

Statement of the Progress of the Principal Branches of the Public Revenue at different periods during the present century, showing the actual produce of taxation, and its produce in comparison with the increased population.

	Customs and Excise.	Stamps.	Taxes.	Post-Office.	Total.
1811.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Amount collected in 1801	19,330,867	3,049,844	9,857,134	843,976	33,081,821
Duties and taxes imposed between 1801 and 1811	15,877,600	1,104,000	11,236,000	380,000	28,597,600
Amount to be received in 1811, by computation	35,208,467	4,153,844	21,093,134	1,223,976	61,679,421
Amount actually collected in 1811	37,466,568	5,703,913	19,819,722	1,352,538	64,342,741
Amount received beyond the computed amount	2,258,101	1,550,069	..	128,562	2,663,320
Amount received less than the computed amount	..	..	1,273,412	..	..
Amount which should have been received taking into account the increase of 13¼ per cent. of population	39,961,610	4,714,612	23,940,707	1,389,213	70,006,142
Amount deficient in proportion to increased population	2,495,042	..	4,120,985	36,675	5,663,401
Amount in excess in proportion to increased population	..	989,301	..	..	..
1821.					
Amount collected in 1801	19,330,867	3,049,844	9,857,134	843,976	33,081,821
Duties and taxes imposed between 1801 and 1821	21,681,566	1,147,042	11,731,000	609,600	35,189,208
	41,012,433	4,196,886	21,608,134	1,453,576	68,271,029
Duties and taxes repealed, &c. between 1814 and 1821	4,134,173	23,993	15,310,567	25,000	19,493,733
Amount to be received in 1821 by computation	36,878,260	4,172,893	6,297,567	1,428,576	48,777,296
Amount actually collected in 1821	38,765,814	6,513,599	7,814,690	1,383,538	54,477,641
Amount received beyond the computed amount	1,887,554	2,340,706	1,517,123	..	5,700,345
Amount received less than the computed amount	..	..	..	45,038	..
Amount which should have been received taking into account the increase of 9½ per cent. of population	17,849,543	5,414,299	8,151,402	1,352,453	32,767,741

Amount deficient in proportion to increased population	9,083,729	..	356,403	470,040	8,810,902
Amount in excess in proportion to increased population	..	1,099,270	..	..	..
1831.					
Amount collected in 1801	19,330,867	3,049,844	9,857,134	843,976	33,081,821
Duties and taxes imposed between 1801 and 1831	23,308,271	1,162,051	11,752,170	618,700	36,841,192
	42,639,138	4,211,895	21,609,304	1,462,676	69,923,013
Duties and taxes repealed, &c. between 1814 and 1831	19,660,519	476,353	18,225,249	105,000	38,467,121
Amount to be received in 1831 by computation	22,978,619	3,735,542	3,384,055	1,357,676	31,455,892
Amount actually collected in 1831	32,819,296	6,947,829	4,864,343	1,530,206	46,161,674
Amount received beyond the computed amount	9,840,677	3,212,287	1,480,288	172,530	14,705,782
Amount which should have been received taking into account the increase of 48½ per cent. of population	34,123,249	5,547,280	5,025,322	2,016,148	46,711,999
Amount deficient in proportion to increased population	1,303,953	..	160,979	485,942	550,325
Amount in excess in proportion to increased population	..	1,400,549	..	..	..
1836.					
Amount collected in 1801	19,330,867	3,049,844	9,857,134	843,976	33,081,821
Duties and taxes imposed between 1801 and 1836	23,529,716	1,183,601	11,752,170	618,700	37,084,187
	42,860,583	4,233,445	21,609,304	1,462,676	70,166,008
Duties and taxes repealed, &c. between 1814 and 1836	23,043,860	649,759	19,867,758	130,000	43,691,377
Amount to be received in 1836 by computation	19,816,723	3,583,686	1,741,546	1,332,676	26,474,631
Amount actually collected in 1836	36,042,885	7,192,088	3,689,762	1,622,700	48,547,435
Amount received beyond the computed amount	16,226,162	3,608,402	1,948,216	290,024	22,072,804
Amount which should have been received taking into account the increase of 59½ per cent. of population	31,607,673	5,715,979	2,777,766	2,125,618	42,227,036
Amount deficient in proportion to increased population	..	..	..	502,918	..
Amount in excess in proportion to increased population	4,435,212	1,476,109	911,996	..	6,320,399

which devolves by succession, is not brought within the operation of these duties. The motive of saving to their families the amount of the legacy duty, which might otherwise influence some persons to omit making any testamentary disposition of their property, is removed by the regulation which subjects property in such cases to a much higher rate of probate duty (generally 50 per cent.) than is chargeable when a will is proved. If we except those duties which operate in the nature of moral restraints,—such, for instance, as the duty upon spirituous liquors, when not sufficiently high to excite smuggling—there are not any taxes to the effects of which some social evil may not be ascribed. It has been objected to the probate and legacy duties, that, falling inevitably upon capital, they impair the funds applicable to the maintenance of labour, and thereby diminish the future production of the country. "If," says Mr. Ricardo, "a legacy of 1000*l.* be subject to a tax of 100*l.* the legatee considers his legacy as only 900*l.*, and feels no particular motive to save the 100*l.* duty from his expenditure, and thus the capital of the country is diminished; but if he had really received 1000*l.*, and had been required to pay 100*l.* as a tax on income, on wine, on horses, or on servants, he would probably have diminished, or rather not increased, his expenditure by that sum, and the capital of the country would have been unimpaired." * It might, on the other hand, be suggested, that, while these duties are accompanied by the advantage which generally attends direct taxation, namely—that a much larger part of their produce than of the produce of taxes indirectly collected finds its way into the public treasury, they are likewise

* Principles of Political Economy and Taxation, p. 166, third edition.

free from the evil effect commonly ascribed to direct taxation, that it engenders irritation, and is regarded as a greater burthen by the public than the payment of duties to a greater amount upon consumable commodities. The legacy and probate duties are in truth not felt as a tax, and it is this circumstance which has exposed them to the objection urged by Mr. Ricardo. Another and apparently a much better-founded objection to them, as levied in this country, might be brought forward, namely, the partiality shown in excluding from their operation that description of property which, from its greater comparative value and security, is called *real* property. This partiality has always been felt as a grievance, and the sense of injustice which it is calculated to awaken, is of more moment than any temporary irritation that may accompany the demand for money taxes, which soon passes away, and will be felt only by those persons who have given little or no consideration to the subject.

The following table containing the amount of capital upon which legacy duty has been paid in each year from 1797 to 1835 is of importance, as affording some data for approximating towards an estimate of the amount of personal property held within the kingdom, and which it is thus made evident has undergone continual and progressive augmentation:—

Years.	AMOUNT OF CAPITAL SUBJECT				
	1 Per Cent.	2 Per Cent.	2½ Per Cent.	3 Per Cent.	4 Per Cent.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1797	..	733,928	..	41,654	13,798
1798	..	1,483,981	..	310,122	37,812
1799	..	1,701,045	..	339,321	39,349
1800	..	2,320,340	..	354,540	150,523
1801	..	2,133,504	..	376,232	79,054
1802	..	2,466,562	..	370,168	35,321
1803	..	3,060,555	..	885,221	55,236
1804	..	2,722,036	217,073	551,235	71,701
1805	259,204	231,865	2,291,931	31,386	375,443
1806	1,546,395	819,330	2,729,089	12,753	509,897
1807	2,495,031	1,174,972	3,376,813	4,294	699,999
1808	2,798,005	1,017,717	3,988,416	1,227	656,260
1809	5,769,200	36,710	6,576,120	19,976	916,147
1810	5,428,612	15,876	4,853,221	245	1,997,276
1811	5,896,697	15,149	5,714,210	6,228	871,678
1812	7,444,092	759	5,880,767	1,866	929,064
1813	9,247,680	2,303	7,059,889	97	1,166,099
1814	14,636,364	43,815	8,395,997	50	1,148,904
1815	14,020,982	43,882	8,431,905	893,147	1,285,830
1816	12,755,147	10,619	888,475	5,871,582	159,491
1817	16,149,635	62,381	1,315,695	9,675,030	141,266
1818	15,784,470	38,595	858,516	7,971,505	119,424
1819	15,713,120	25,264	738,657	7,585,682	54,266
1820	16,681,096	12,761	888,113	8,500,862	60,907
1821	16,476,804	70,905	729,550	10,040,835	181,086
1822	17,039,614	137,054	843,739	9,446,633	108,673
1823	15,313,711	231,283	717,100	10,827,150	53,150
1824	17,933,434	102,043	441,082	11,357,439	73,192
1825	17,751,237	1,363	274,867	9,857,616	130,133
1826	15,392,247	..	148,646	10,325,101	19,391
1827	16,672,824	..	214,628	10,819,244	12,271
1828	19,469,155	..	224,525	12,967,427	29,626
1829	20,550,167	..	317,814	11,614,112	38,000
1830	21,067,486	..	162,577	12,030,529	17,081
1831	21,280,457	..	140,823	11,417,050	32,859
1832	23,390,210	..	272,789	13,094,964	21,396
1833	22,277,157	..	306,681	12,959,458	9,474
1834	22,109,303	..	160,338	12,400,973	36,792
1835	22,085,931	..	206,593	11,931,662	16,549

TO EACH RATE OF DUTY.				Total Capital subject to Duty in each Year.
5 Per Cent.	6 Per Cent.	8 Per Cent.	10 Per Cent.	
£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
..	326,799	..	..	1,116,180
..	672,896	..	..	2,504,812
..	859,648	..	..	2,939,365
..	1,296,906	..	..	4,122,111
..	953,140	..	..	3,541,931
..	1,235,461	..	..	4,107,514
..	1,108,642	..	..	5,109,655
3,648	1,629,971	105,866	..	5,301,533
79,205	81,820	1,100,007	119	4,450,984
63,562	67,406	1,282,655	7,941	7,039,031
43,392	35,000	1,676,404	9,817	9,515,724
73,985	7,017	1,432,800	262,645	10,238,077
145,868	62.078	752,582	2,116,897	16,395,582
87,397	2,097	399,384	1,517,452	14,301,564
123,380	2,005	301,119	1,826,950	14,757,420
153,452	727	323,822	1,888,033	16,622,585
89,178	3,571	285,491	2,264,197	20,118,508
136,186	542	363,496	2,574,449	27,299,806
419,163	5,522	179,238	2,921,321	28,200,994
1,041,516	136,885	306,399	2,903,337	24,073,456
1,405,347	398,804	319,105	3,651,074	33,118,281
1,423,939	232,527	241,542	3,508,091	30,178,613
1,001,249	279,627	291,974	3,721,818	29,411,662
1,070,486	213,878	190,869	3.626,297	31,245,274
1,504,057	262,884	169,400	3,587,536	33,023,060
2,567,091	735,338	200,389	3,844,148	34,922,682
1,304,936	278,469	205,786	3,804,085	32,735,674
1,344,241	244,663	197,775	4,158,951	35,852,824
1,931,810	245,969	317,614	4,291,238	34,801,851
1,135,523	290,856	72,592	3,640,230	31,024,593
2,014,882	264,191	32,700	4,027,570	34,058,313
1,715,571	302,077	105,977	4,285,161	39,099,523
1,725,642	384,416	120,986	4,916,136	39,667,277
2,726,218	378,229	164,767	4,672,434	31,219,324
1,685,838	254,334	78,122	4,642,909	39,532,397
1,364,545	320,380	67,314	4,799,907	43,334,508
1,756,779	263,532	78,486	4,322,860	41,974,429
1,558,875	300,872	91,538	4,915,934	41,574,628
1,642,198	300,998	94,844	4,813,882	41,092,660

It should be stated that some part of the capital brought to charge in each year consists of the arrears of former years. These arrears of course vary from year to year, and for some time the tendency would naturally be towards their increase; but it may be assumed that for many years past this has not been the case, and that the arrears received in each year have borne a very near proportion to the amount applicable to the same year which is suffered to go into arrear. It must too be borne in mind that there is a very considerable part of the personal property in this kingdom which at the death of the possessors is not subjected to the duty on legacies: the amount thus exempted it is not possible to determine.

The following statement gives the amount of revenue received for legacy duty and probate duty in each year since 1823, distinguishing the sums collected in the different divisions of the kingdom:—

Return of the Total Amount of Revenue received in the United Kingdom in each year, from 5th January, 1823, to 5th January, 1836, for Stamp Duty on Legacies, Probates, Administrations, and Testamentary Inventories.

Year ending 5th January.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
1824				
Legacies	930,881 14 6	50,359 19 2	981,241 13 8	16,296 14 5½
Probates, Administrations, and Testamentary Inventories.	782,042 18 0	38,556 10 0	820,599 8 0	29,411 10 10
1825				
Legacies	988,087 13 0	61,370 10 11	1,049,458 3 11	23,552 16 1
Probates, &c.	805,222 14 6	46,718 0 0	851,940 14 6	31,112 16 7½
1826				
Legacies	992,100 13 2	64,805 13 9	1,056,906 6 11	30,258 13 2½
Probates, &c.	831,137 7 0	43,374 0 0	874,511 7 0	34,552 0 0
1827				
Legacies	869,208 10 6	54,114 11 8	923,323 2 2	21,053 12 4
Probates, &c.	762,459 9 0	52,578 0 0	815,037 9 0	38,102 9 11
1828				
Legacies	967,377 3 6	65,676 2 9	1,033,053 6 3	35,750 0 9
Probates, &c.	830,800 6 0	37,989 0 0	868,789 6 0	32,166 10 0
1829				
Legacies	1,105,250 18 8	65,043 10 1	1,170,294 8 9	27,557 14 5½
Probates, &c.	833,744 0 0	43,850 10 0	877,594 10 0	41,659 10 0
1830				
Legacies	1,119,936 12 2	58,773 3 0	1,178,709 15 2	29,325 10 1
Probates, &c.	835,273 0 0	42,709 0 0	877,982 0 0	46,400 17 10
1831				
Legacies	1,153,305 19 5	69,954 12 1	1,223,260 11 6	24,628 15 3
Probates, &c.	857,909 0 0	46,029 10 0	903,938 10 0	37,125 15 3
1832				
Legacies	1,075,264 9 2	69,194 14 6	1,144,459 3 8	19,352 3 3
Probates, &c.	833,592 10 0	43,346 10 0	876,939 0 0	41,728 10 0
1833				
Legacies	1,123,800 18 4	81,252 6 5	1,205,053 4 9	25,974 2 0
Probates, &c.	803,911 10 0	41,268 0 0	845,179 10 0	39,508 10 0
1834				
Legacies	1,093,343 4 4	56,674 0 0	1,150,017 4 4	25,463 10 2½
Probates, &c.	839,041 0 0	46,422 0 0	885,463 0 0	38,543 13 10
1835				
Legacies	1,140,229 9 2	69,509 11 1	1,209,739 0 3	29,273 3 10½
Probates, &c.	864,393 10 0	67,455 0 0	931,848 10 0	44,324 10 0
1386				
Legacies	1,106,364 13 5	72,518 10 3	1,178,883 3 8	27,284 7 10
Probates, &c.	848 066 11 0	51,544 10 0	899,611 1 0	40,996 0 0

But for the great productiveness of the class of duties just considered, the deficient produce of taxation during the war and for the few years that elapsed after its

close, in which we were still suffering from its financial evils, would have been much more apparent. The progress of customs and excise duties as computed at each of the periods embraced in the statement, was as follows:—

Years.	To be collected by Computation.	Duties, &c, imposed beyond amount repealed since 1801.	Sum actually collected.	Deficient, considering Population.	Excessive, considering increased Population.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1801	..	..	19,330,867	..	..
1811	35,208,467	15,877,600	37,466,568	2,495,042	..
1821	36,878,260	17,547,393	38,765,814	9,083,729	..
1831	22,978,619	3,647,752	32,819,296	1,303,953	..
1836	19,816,723	485,856	36,042,885	..	4,435,212

Pursuing this inquiry into the two remaining branches, we find the following results:—

Years.	To be collected by Computation.	Duties, &c., imposed beyond the Amount repealed since 1801.	Duties, &c. repealed beyond the Amount imposed since 1801.	Sum actually collected.	Deficient Receipt, considering increased Population.	Excessive Receipt, considering increased Population.
			Taxes.			
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1801	..	..	..	9,857,134	..	..
1811	21,093,134	11,236,000	..	19,819,722	4,120,985	..
1821	6,297,567	..	3,559,567	7,814,690	356,403	..
1831	3,384,055	..	6,473,079	4,864,343	160,979	..
1836	1,741,546	..	8,115,588	3,689,762	..	911,996
			Post-office.			
1801	..	..	..	843,976	..	..
1811	1,223,976	380,000	..	1,352,538	36,675	..
1821	1,428,576	584,600	..	1,883,538	470,040	..
1831	1,357,676	513,700	..	1,530,206	485,942	..
1836	1,332,676	488,700	..	1,622,700	502,918	..

It will no doubt be remarked, that the revenue derived from the Post-office was in 1836 deficient at the rate of 25 per cent., when thus examined with reference to

the increased population, and compared with its productiveness in 1801; and it will be observed that less has been done since the peace in this than in any other branch of the public revenue towards the relief of the people. It is a very common idea, that because the Government performs a service, in return for the tax imposed on the transmission of letters—which cannot be said with equal propriety in regard to any other taxes—that therefore this is a peculiarly fair and fit object for taxation, and that the Government would even be justified in making any addition to the rates of postage which would leave the cost of conveying a letter below that which it would occasion to the individual himself to convey it. This, however, is a very narrow point of view in which to place the question, and one which leaves altogether out of sight the fact that the Government, assuming to itself a strict monopoly in the business, has thereby shut out the open competition of individuals and private associations, by whom the service might be performed upon terms more advantageous for the public. This is a subject of great and growing importance to almost every class of people in this kingdom; and it would, therefore, have been necessary to have offered in detail some arguments against the commonly-received opinion regarding it, if its fallacy had not been recently and most satisfactorily exposed in a work which has excited very great attention on the part of the public, and even within the walls of Parliament.*

The whole subject of taxation is one of the highest importance, and yet it is to be feared that the principles by which it should be governed are but partially understood. If even our finance ministers had at any time conceived plans for establishing this subject upon a sounder footing

* Post-office Reform; its Importance and Practicability. By Rowland Hill.

they would probably have been withheld, by the situation in which this country is placed through the burthen of its obligations to the public creditor, from attempting any great experimental alteration of the existing system. So long as this check to improvement shall operate, it may be hopeless to advocate the adoption of any efficient change, but it must, under any circumstances, be of advantage to know the facts that have accompanied the course pursued. The following statements embrace a period and apply to circumstances unprecedented in the history of finance, and the results which they present may be found useful hereafter, if unhappily similar causes should call for the like exertions and sacrifices on the part of the country; or if, on the other hand, a brighter era should arise, in which it may be thought possible to adopt sounder views. The first of these statements gives the produce, year by year, of each of the great heads of the public revenue, and the population of the United Kingdom during each of the years. The second Table states the progress of taxation in each year, calculated upon the same principle as was adopted in making up the statement given in pages 310 and 311. In this Table it has been assumed that the effect of taxes imposed, or of their remission or diminution, is not experienced until the year following that in which they are imposed or removed by Parliament. This assumption is not, perhaps, strictly accurate, but the statement is assuredly more near to the truth than it would have been if the effect had been assumed to be experienced during the year in which those measures were adopted.

Statement of the Amount received into the Exchequer from Customs and Excise Duties, Stamps, Taxes, and Postages of Letters, in each Year from 1801 to 1836, with the Population of the United Kingdom in each Year:—

Years.	Customs and Excise.	Stamps.	Taxes.	Post-Office.	Total.	Population.*
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
1801	19,330,867	3,049,844	9,857,134	843,976	33,081,821	16,338,102*
1802	23,524,702	3,194,354	8,063,130	972,547	35,754,733	16,559,064
1803	27,537,953	3,346,110	5,705,618	915,370	37,505,051	16,780,026
1804	31,612,842	3,670,849	8,900,839	952,894	45,137,424	17,000,987
1805	33,993,947	4,340,381	10,045,591	1,127,451	49,507,370	17,221,949
1806	35,947,535	4,609,693	11,813,027	1,151,376	53,521,631	17,442,911
1807	36,504,655	4,795,747	16,274,901	1,150,717	58,726,020	17,663,872
1808	37,074,168	5,069,371	18,044,941	1,143,600	61,332,080	17,884,834
1809	36,008,365	5,694,417	20,023,394	1,213,050	62,939,226	18,105,796
1810	38,300,069	5,899,372	20,406,428	1,333,538	65,939,407	18,326,758
1811	37,466,508	5,703,913	19,819,722	1,352,538	64,342,741	18,547,720*
1812	36,285,388	5,705,869	19,787,522	1,400,385	63,179,164	18,812,294
1813	38,281,158	6,013,120	21,400,394	1,494,615	67,189,287	19 076,868
1814	40,560,412	6,247,369	21,763,410	1,532,153	70,103,344	19,341,441
1815	41,759,340	6,375,667	21,618,123	1,621,385	71,372,515	19 606,015
1816	34,292,320	6,472,169	19,080,345	1,498,000	61,332,834	19,870,589
1817	32,741,687	6,861,169	10,002,749	1,395,231	51,000,836	20,135,163
1818	36,380,302	6,904,560	8,331,781	1,385,154	53,001,797	20,399,736
1819	35,766,301	6,666,712	7,855,246	1,528,588	51,816,797	20,664,310
1820	37,767,112	6,562,253	7,803,004	1,448,077	53,580,446	20,928,884
1821	38,765,814	6,513,599	7,814,690	1,383,538	54,477,641	21,193,458*
1822	37,947,025	6,642,546	7,218,844	1,428,231	53,226,646	21,504,784
1823	36,841,590	6,801,950	6,206,927	1,462,692	51,313,159	21,816,110
1824	38,095,781	7,244,042	4,922,070	1,520,615	51,782,508	22,127,436
1825	37,546,011	7,447,924	4,990,961	1,595,461	51,580,357	22,438,762
1826	36,452,731	6,702,350	4,702,744	1,570,000	49,427,825	22,750,089
1827	36,333,112	6,811,226	4,768,273	1,463,000	49,375,611	23,061,415
1828	37,995,094	7,107,950	4,849,303	1,508,000	51,460,347	23,372,741
1829	36,751,851	7,101,304	4,896,507	1,481,000	50,230,722	23,684,067
1830	36,184,707	7,058,121	5,013,405	1,466,012	49,722,245	23,995,393
1831	32,849,296	6,947,829	4,864,343	1,530,206	46,161,674	24,306,719*
1832	33,406,029	6,951,843	4,943,967	1,461,000	46,762,859	24,671,320
1833	32,752,652	6,928,309	4,892,058	1,513,800	46,086,819	25,035,920
1834	33,294,552	7,016,727	4,550,613	1,490,400	46,352,292	25,400,521
1835	33,615,273	7,000,223	3,676,523	1,540,300	45,832,319	25,765,122
1836	36,042,885	7,192,088	3,689,762	1,622,700	48,547,435	26,129,723

* The numbers to which an asterisk is affixed are those obtained from actual enumeration. Those assigned to other years before 1831 are obtained by dividing into equal portions the difference of numbers ascertained by the several enumerations. After 1831 an addition of 1¼ per cent. is made each year.

Statement of the progress in each year of the present century of the chief branches of the Public Revenue, namely—Customs, Excise, Stamps, Taxes, and Post-office, taking into the account the taxes imposed or repealed, and having regard to the progressive increase of population.

Years.	Sum to be received as computed on imposed or repealed duties.	Sum actually received.	Received less than computed amount.	Received more than computed amount.	Computation of receipts according to the progressive increase of population.		
					To be received.	Received less.	Received more.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1801	...	33,081,821	...	...	...	...	...
1802	34,801,821	35,754,733	...	952,912	35,271,645	...	480,088
1803	38,801,821	37,505,051	1,296,770	...	39,849,470	2,344,419	...
1804	51,301,821	45,137,424	6,164,397	...	53,129,886	7,992,462	...
1805	52,301,821	49,507,370	2,794,451	...	55,126,129	5,618,759	...
1806	53,861,821	53,521,631	341,190	...	57,497,494	3,975,863	...
1807	59,861,821	58,726,020	1,135,801	...	64,710,628	5,984,608	...
1808	59,861,821	61,332,080	...	1,470,259	65,518,763	4,186,683	...
1809	60,061,821	62,939,226	...	2,877,405	66,548,497	3,609,271	...
1810	60,061,821	65,939,407	...	5,877,586	67,359,332	1,419,925	...
1811	60,061,821	64,342,741	...	4,280,920	68,170,167	3,827,426	...
1812	61,679,421	63,179,164	...	1,499,743	71,023,853	7,844,689	...
1813	63,174,421	67,189,287	...	4,014,866	73,756,136	6,566,849	...
1814	64,154,421	70,103,344	...	5,948,923	75,946,003	5,842,659	...
1815	63,510,279	71,372,575	...	7,862,236	76,212,335	4,839,820	...
1816	63,464,302	61,332,834	*2,131,468	...	77,166,591	15,833,757	...
1817	46,291,995	51,000,836	...	4,708,841	57,054,883	6,054,047	...
1818	46,263,491	53,001,797	...	6,738,306	57,829,364	4,827,567	...
1819	46,255,343	51,816,797	...	5,561,454	58,513,008	6,696,211	...
1820	49,088,161	53,580,446	...	4,492,285	62,832,846	9,256,240	...
1821	49,203,763	54,477,641	...	5,273,878	63,841,883	9,364,242	...
1822	48,771,296	53,226,646	...	4,449,350	64,190,921	10,964,275	...
1823	46,638,195	51,313,159	...	4,674,964	62,261,990	10,948,831	...
1824	42,471,056	51,782,508	...	9,311,452	57,335,925	5,553,417	...
1825	40,719,328	51,580,357	...	10,861,029	55,907,637	4,327,280	...
1826	37,091,189	49,427,825	...	12,336,636	51,630,935	2,203,110	...
1827	35,312,699	49,375,611	...	14,062,912	49,826,218	451,607	...
1828	35,250,063	51,460,347	...	16,210,284	50,407,590	...,	†052,757
1829	35,200,031	50,230,722	...	15,030,691	51,040,045	809,323	...
1830	35,073,625	49,722,245	...	14,648,620	51,523,155	1,800,910	...
1831	31,698,887	46,161,674	...	14,462,787	47,072,847	911,173	...
1832	30,738,421	46,762,839	...	16,024,418	46,415,015	...	347,824
1833	30,035,683	46,086,819	...	16,051,236	46,014,766	...	72,053
1834	28,503,555	46,352,292	...	17,848,737	44,226,116	...	2,126,176
1835	26,637,433	45,832,319	...	19,194,886	41,900,682	...	3,931,737
1836	26,474,631	48,547,435	...	22,072,804	42,227,936	...	6,320,499

* The Property Tax was repealed in 1816. Its produce in that year was less than in 1815 by 2,950,000*l.*, but no allowance on account of this repeal is made above until 1817.

† New taxes imposed, calculated to produce 3,000,000*l.*

Among the reductions effected from 1831 inclusive, several are of duties which were partial and unjust in their operation, while others were highly impolitic in their tendency, and prevented the extension of certain branches of industry. Among the former may be mentioned the duty upon coals carried coastwise, which acted in aggravation of the natural disadvantage experienced by the inhabitants of those parts of the country to which fuel was conveyed at a great expense, while the districts in which coal abounds, and where consequently its cost is small, were exempt from the tax. Among the duties to which the charge of impolicy is applied was that upon printed cottons, the evil effects of which have been sufficiently explained in a former section. The discriminating duties upon sugar and coffee, the produce of British possessions in India, have also been removed, a measure which cannot fail to have the best effects upon our commerce with that part of the world, and a long list of articles, the revenue derived from which was insignificant in amount, but hurtful in its effects upon various branches of the natural industry, have either been removed from the tariff or the duties upon them reduced to rates that are merely nominal.

The custom-house accounts still exhibit a list of 190 articles upon which duties are levied, independent of such as are not considered worth enumerating, but are described as "all other articles," and the duties upon which, in 1836, amounted to 90,470*l.* It is a curious fact, that out of this long array of substances, the net produce of the duties upon which amounted, in 1836, to 22,774,991*l.*, the large proportion of 94$\frac{1}{5}$ per cent., or 21,488,162*l.*, was collected upon eighteen articles, as shown in the following list. By extending the list so as to comprise all articles which yield annually 10,000*l.*

and upwards, it will be found to comprehend, altogether, only forty-five articles, yielding 22,376,869*l.*, or 98¼ per cent. of the whole, leaving 145 articles, besides all those unenumerated, and which yield 398,122*l.*, or 1¾ per cent. of the produce.

	£.
Tea	4,674,534
Sugar and Molasses	4,479,808
Tobacco	3,397,106
British Plantation & Foreign Spirits	,958,728
Wine	1,794,033
Timber	1,537,468
Coffee	691,605
Cotton Wool	430,006
Butter	238,306
Tallow	207,787
	20,409,381

	£.
Silk Manufactured Goods	205,983
Currants	194,821
Sheeps' Wool	189,525
Corn	149,661
Raisins	117,094
Seeds	116,611
Cheese	105,086
	1,078,781
	20,409,381
	21,488,162

	£.
Pepper	99,433
Dye and Hard Woods	78,437
Turpentine	73,823
Oils	68,475
Lemons and Oranges	52,225
Hides	47,738
Furs	40,198
Indigo	36,354
Iron	29,481
Licorice Juice	28,530
Leather Gloves	27,507
Rice	27,200
Bark	25,855
Eggs	23,991
Bristles	23,466
Cork Wood	22,774
Platting for Hats	21,875
	727,062

	£.
Skins	19,375
Woollen Manufactures	19,346
Glass	19,246
Raw and Waste Silk	18,783
Linen	17,650
Nuts	15,794
Nutmegs	15,029
Brimstone	13,222
Madder and Madder Roots	12,826
Clocks	10,374
	161,645
	727,062
	888,707
	21,488,162
	22,376,869

Is it possible to conceive any better use that could be made of a surplus of revenue, to the extent of 400,000*l.*, than in repealing all this long array of comparatively unproductive duties, which cannot but exercise a prejudicial effect upon commerce? Some part of those unproductive duties have been imposed for what is called the protection of our manufactures, and some others because of the excise-duties charged upon the like articles of English manufacture. It must surely be bad policy for this country to set the example of charging duties for the protection of domestic industry. Such duties must long ago have become wholly inoperative, through the perfection and economy which have been attained in our manufactories, and if perchance this should not be the case with every minute branch of skilful employment, we ought to have learned, from the experience of former relaxations, that the true and certain way to insure improvement is to throw down the mounds of protection. If even, against all probability and all experience, some few sickly and exotic branches of employment should leave the country, the sacrifice would be small indeed in comparison with the good to be attained through the practical carrying out of a principle from the universal adoption of which we have so much to gain, but which never will be generally adopted by other countries, so long as their prohibitory or protective duties are countenanced by the provisions—however inoperative—of our tariff.

Where excise-duties are charged upon articles of English production, it is assuredly only justice to the home manufacturer to levy equivalent duties upon the admission of the like articles from foreign countries; but in such cases it were well to inquire whether the sums

received afford a sufficient compensation for the evils always attendant upon duties levied in manufactories. The excise-duty on vinegar made in the United Kingdom amounted to no more, in 1836, than 26,313*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.*, and the protecting duty on foreign vinegar to 1,351*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.* If the duties were removed, and the manufacturers were allowed to carry on their processes freed from the restrictive rules of revenue officers, it cannot be doubted that they would soon produce vinegar at a price which would insure to them the supply of the home market, for a much greater quantity than is now manufactured, while our trade with France would be increased, in a manner which would secure for us the good wishes and co-operation of one of the largest and most influential classes of proprietors in that country. The imposition of an excise-duty on vinegar has been justified on the plea of care for the health of the public, which is to be protected by means of the revenue officers, who will prevent the use of any deleterious ingredients in our vinegar-yards, a plea which will scarcely meet with supporters at the present day, since it is known that no surveillance will suffice to prevent illegal mixtures, where it is to the interest of manufacturers to make them. If the duty upon vinegar were repealed, more persons would embark in the manufacture, and the public would derive from competition the best possible security against unfair dealing.

It is more than probable that, if the government would act upon the suggestion here thrown out, of repealing all the comparatively unproductive customs-duties which now swell the tariff, the money collected upon the remaining more important articles would amply compensate for the amount given up, and especially if, by a

relaxation of our laws that regulate the trade in foreign corn, a fixed and very moderate duty were collected upon that article.

The evil effects of high duties, as regards consumption, will be better shown in the section especially treating on that branch of our subject.

It would have been a favourable circumstance for commerce, and consequently for the progress of social improvement, if governments had never imposed any duties upon foreign productions, except with the single object of obtaining revenue. Duties of regulation, whatever may have been the motives for their adoption, have always in their ultimate effects been productive of more evil than good, a fact which has been kept out of view principally because the good, which is frequently very doubtful at best, is enjoyed by individuals through whom it is rendered apparent, while the evil has partly consisted in the absence or rather the prevention of good, and has operated silently but most injuriously upon the welfare of the community at large.

Duties have too frequently been imposed in the spirit of retaliation, an unwise and unworthy spirit whether adopted by individuals or by nations, and which has long ago been thus ably exposed by Dr. Franklin :—

" Suppose a country, X, with three manufactures, as cloth, silk, iron, supplying three other countries, A, B, C, but is desirous of increasing the vent and raising the price of cloth in favour of her own clothiers.

In order to do this, she forbids the importation of foreign cloths from A.

A, in return, forbids silks from X.

Then the silk-workers complain of a decay of trade.

And X, to content them, forbids silks from B.

B, in return, forbids iron-ware from X.

Then the iron-workers complain of decay.

And X forbids the importation of iron from C.

C, in return, forbids cloth from X.

What is got by all these prohibitions?

Answer.—All four find their common stock of the enjoyments and conveniences of life diminished."

In levying duties of regulation, governments legislate for the benefit of the producers only of the country, leaving out of sight the interests of consumers—the universal class—all of whom are thus placed at a disadvantage for the supposed profit of a few among their number. The minister acts, without doubt, in accordance with the feeling of the majority, when, in return for the imposition by a foreign government of any duty which tends to limit the trade of some of the producers in his own country, he attempts to punish the offending nation by aiming a similar blow at some branch of its industry—the doctrine of "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth" is never more fully nor more fatally acted upon than in commercial legislation, although in the present day, and in our own country, the evil tendency of this anti-social spirit has been demonstrated until it has become hardly possible for any one to hazard an argument in its favour. We may not, in every case, have imposed retaliatory duties precisely in the manner supposed by Dr. Franklin, but our adherence to the principle involved in them is still but too apparent, and especially appears whenever it is proposed to remove or relax any duty upon importation. In these cases, without considering whether such a relaxation will be beneficial to ourselves, and then adopting it accordingly, we have sought to render the measure subservient to another object, that of producing a corresponding relaxation on the part of the foreign country of production in favour of some branch of our national indus-

try. In this endeavour we have but seldom proved successful. The feeling of commercial rivalry too generally disposes governments to imagine that any proposals to such an effect must have some covert and selfish aim; and, having once rendered our proposed relaxation contingent upon some correspondent proceeding on the part of another country, the refusal of our offers is allowed to bind us to the continuance of a course known and felt to be prejudicial to ourselves. Would it not show greater wisdom and magnanimity in us to take our measures independently of the conduct of others, in the full assurance that the course of events must soon lead to the willing adoption of principles from which foreign governments may have been deterred solely through misapprehension of our motives? The commercial greatness of this country was achieved under the prevalence of a system of restriction and monopoly favoured by circumstances altogether different from those in which the States of Europe are placed at this time. We have become convinced that a rigid perseverance in that system of exclusiveness, if even it were practicable, would now be no longer profitable, and have been at much pains to produce this conviction in the minds of other people, both by means of the press and by negociations, but we have left comparatively untried the strongest argument that could be used in favour of our altered views—that which would be afforded by our unreserved adoption of a more liberal policy. The success that accompanied our restrictive regulations has been, not unreasonably perhaps, mistaken for their effect, and it is required from us that we should give to the world a practical illustration of our conversion before we can expect to produce a conviction of our sincerity. The necessity for our adopting such a course was shown very forcibly during the discussions in

the American Congress which preceded its adoption of the Tariff of 1824, and which are thus described in the dispatch of our minister at Washington to Mr. Canning, dated 30th May in that year:—"The example of Great Britain," says Mr. Addington, "has been adduced as the main support of the arguments used on either side, both parties admitting with equal zeal and admiration the fact of her unrivalled prosperity, but each ascribing it to those grounds which best suited their own line of reasoning. The recent measures adopted by her for the liberalization of her external commercial system, and her emancipation from her ancient system of restriction, are pretty generally ascribed by the advocates of the tariff to a desire to inveigle other nations into an imitation of her example, with the intention, as soon as they shall have embarked sufficiently deeply in her schemes, of turning short round upon them, and resuming to their detriment her old system of protection and prohibition. This scheme, they affirm, Great Britain will, by her superior means, be enabled to execute without hazard to herself." The following passage taken from Mr. Addington's letter on this occasion will show how practically mischievous to ourselves are the restrictions which we lay upon the importation of foreign produce:—"I have only to add, that had no restrictions on the importation of foreign grain existed in Europe generally, and especially in Great Britain, I have little doubt that the tariff would never have passed through either House of Congress, since the great agricultural States, and Pennsylvania especially, the main mover of the question, would have been indifferent if not opposed to its enactment."

Chapter IV.

WAR EXPENDITURE.

Expenditure in last years of War—Consequent exhaustion and distress—Comparative expenditure in War and Peace—Votes for Army, Navy, Ordnance, 1801 to 1836—Loans and Subsidies to Foreign States—Value of Stores furnished to our Allies in 1814.

In examining the details of the public expenditure, we cannot fail to be struck with the exceedingly great proportion that is absorbed by the expense attending the naval and military force which circumstances have made it necessary for us to maintain. In the last year of the war (1814) the sums expended for the army, navy, and ordnance service, amounted to 71,686,707*l.*, and if to this sum is added the interest of the debt, all of which had been incurred in the prosecution of wars, it will be seen that these branches of expenditure amounted, in that one year, to 101,738,072*l.*, a large part of which was expended in foreign countries, and consequently was abstracted from the capital of the nation. The drain upon our resources which had been thus in operation for a continuous series of years affords alone quite sufficient explanation of the state of exhaustion in which the country was placed during the first few years that followed the restoration of peace, without our being required to ascribe any part of the evil to the cause so vaguely assigned at the time, namely—the transition from war to peace. In an opposite state of circumstances, where the

transition should be from peace to war, it is easy to conceive that such a destruction of property might be encountered as would bring on a considerable derangement of the commercial dealings of the country, but that the return of peace, accompanied as it is by a remission of taxes, and by the opening of various channels that had before been closed against our trade, should produce evils of the nature alluded to, appears little better than a practical contradiction. The country did, indeed, at that time exhibit all the signs of exhaustion, and the single fact of that exhaustion appearing after the restoration of peace was received as sufficient proof that it was caused by the cessation of war. The ceasing of a war demand for various articles consumed by the army, or which were exported to provide payment of our loans and subsidies to foreign countries, may have occasioned loss to the comparatively small number of individuals who had supplied the government, or had conducted certain branches of the export trade; but these persons, and these departments of business, must have been insignificant when compared with the great mass of our commercial dealers, who must have been benefited by the change. Had we not been placed, by the lavish expenditure of the latter years of the war, in a state unfavourable for taking advantage of the favourable alteration in the years that immediately followed the final overthrow of Napoleon, they must have been to us years of the highest prosperity. The prices of those articles generally, of which we were buyers, fell; while, on the contrary, the goods which we had to offer in exchange rose in value. During the ten years between 1805 and 1814 the government expenditure exceeded 800,000,000*l.*; and although some considerable part of this amount doubtless came back to individuals, and prevented that ex-

penditure from being altogether a loss of capital to the country, the part which found its way to foreign lands, without producing any immediate return, was greater than we could bear without suffering, and was, in all reasonable probability, the cause of the difficulties which bore so hard upon our merchants in the few following years, and before the benign influence of peace had adequately remedied the evil.

The following statement (see Table in next page) shows the amount expended in each year from 1801 to 1836, under the heads of navy, army, and ordnance expenses.

According to that Table the national defence has cost the country during the century upwards of 1000 millions of money; 63 per cent. of which was expended in the 14 years of war, and the remaining 37 per cent. has been incurred in the 22 years of peace, viz.:—

	14 Years, 1801 to 1814.	22 Years, 1815 to 1836.	Total. 36 Years, 1801 to 1836.
Navy	£237,441,798	£137,719,606	£375,161,404
Army	337,903,912	204,406,907	542,400,819
Ordnance	58,198,904	34,176,949	92,375,853
	£633,634,614	£376,303,462	£1,009,938,076

The average annual expenditure under these three heads was, in the 14 years ending with 1814, 45,259,615*l.*: in the 22 years ending with 1836 it has fallen to 17,104,702*l.* If we confine the comparison of the expenditure for national defence to the six years ending with 1836, it will be found that the average amount in this latter period was 12,714,289*l.*, or less by 72 per cent. than it was previous to 1814. In the 16 years between 1815 and 1830 the average annual expenditure for naval and military purposes was 18,751,108*l.*, compared with which the cost in the six years ending with 1836 exhibits a saving of 32 per cent. In the six years from

Amount Expended from 1801 to 1836.

Years.	Navy.	Army.	Ordnance.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1801	17,266,135	17,752,947	2,197,186	37,216,268
1802	12,037,162	11,836,407	1,142,839	25,016,408
1803	8,072,878	13,488,080	2,029,799	23,590,757
1804	11,921,551	17,927,422	4,046,054	33,895,027
1805	14,493,843	19,790,181	5,105,426	39,389,450
1806	16,143,628	19,294,982	5,250,376	40,688,986
1807	16,896,661	19,373,101	4,260,079	40,529,841
1808	17,685,390	21,916,198	5,148,852	44,750,440
1809	19,372,061	23,910,222	4,928,674	48,210,957
1810	20,021,512	23,038,479	4,808,745	47,868,736
1811	19,202,679	29,160,530	4,495,816	52,859,025
1812	20,370,339	31,004,701	5,240,537	56,615,577
1813	21,833,522	44,241,285	5,241,628	71,316,435
1814	22,124,437	45,259,377	4,302,893	71,686,707
1815	16.073,870	35,321,544	3,248,759	54.644,173
1816	9,516,325	15,027,898	2,748,841	27,293,064
1817	6,473,063	9,718,066	1,417,648	17,608,777
1818	6,521,714	7,785,979	1,247,197	15,554,890
1819	6,395,553	8,998,037	1,243,639	16,637,229
1820	6,387,799	8,944,814	1,092,292	16.424,905
1821	6,107,280	9,138,845	1,183,727	16.429,852
1822	5,042,642	7,698,974	1,007,821	13,749,437
1823	5,613,151	7,351,992	1,364,328	14,329,471
1824	6,161,818	7,573,026	1,407,308	15.142,152
1825	5,849,119	7,579,631	1,567,087	14,995,837
1826	6,540,634	8,297,361	1,869,606	16,707,601
1827	6,414,727	7,876,682	1,914,403	16,205,812
1828	5,667,970	8,084,043	1,446,972	15,198,985
1829	5,902,339	7,709,372	1,569,150	15,180,861
1830	5,309,606	6,991,163	1,613,908	13,914,677
1831	5,689,859	7,216,293	1,472,944	14.379,096
1832	4,882,835	7,129,874	1,792,317	13,805,026
1833	4,360,235	6,590,062	1,314,806	12,265,103
1834	4,503,909	6,493,925	1,068,223	12,066,057
1835	4,099,430	6,406,143	1,151,914	11,657,487
1836	4,205,726	6,473,183	1,434,059	12,112,968

1809 to 1814 the expenditure for army, navy, and ordnance services was 348,557,438*l.*, being an annual average of 58,092,906*l.*

One source of public expenditure which bore very hard upon our national resources during the war consisted of the amount of loans and subsidies paid to foreign countries. The following statement shows the expenditure of each year under this head from 1793 to 1814. The aggregate sum thus abstracted from the national resources in those 22 years amounted to 46,289,459*l.*, of which about two-thirds, 30,582,259*l.* were expended in the 10 years that preceded 1814.

Statement of the Amount of Loans and Subsidies paid to Foreign States in each Year from the commencement of the War in 1793, to its close in 1814:—

		£.	£.
1793	Hanover	492,650	
	Hesse Cassel	190,623	
	Sardinia	150,000	
			833,273
1794	Prussia	1,226,495	
	Sardinia	200,000	
	Hesse Cassel	437,105	
	Hesse Darmstadt	102,073	
	Baden	25,196	
	Hanover	559,376	
			2,550,245
1795	Germany, Imperial Loan (35 Geo. III., c. 93)	4,600,000	
	Baden	1,794	
	Brunswick	97,722	
	Hesse Cassel	317,492	
	Hesse Darmstadt	79,605	
	Hanover	478,348	
	Sardinia	150,000	
			5,724,961
1796	Hesse Darmstadt	20,076	
	Brunswick	12,794	
			32,870
1797	Hesse Darmstadt	57,015	
	Brunswick	7,571	
	Germany, Imperial Loan (37 Geo. III., c. 59)	1,620,000	
			1,684,586
	Carried forward		10,825,935

		£.	£.
	Brought forward . .		10,825,935
1798	Brunswick	7,000	
	Portugal	120,013	
			127,013
1799	Prince of Orange . .	20,000	
	Hesse Darmstadt . .	4,812	
	Russia	825,000	
			849,812
1800	Germany	1,066,666	
	German Princes . .	500,000	
	Bavaria	501,017	
	Russia	545,494	
			2,613,177
1801	Portugal	200,114	
	Sardinia	40,000	
	Hesse Cassel . . .	100,000	
	Germany	150,000	
	German Princes . .	200,000	
			690,114
1802	Hesse Cassel . . .	33,451	
	Sardinia	52,000	
	Russia	200,000	
			285,451
1803	Hanover	117,628	
	Russia	63,000	
	Portugal	31,647	
			212,275
1804	Sweden	20,119	
	Hesse Cassel . . .	83,304	
			103,423
1805	Hanover	....	35,341
1806	Hanover	76,865	
	Hesse Cassel . . .	18,982	
	Germany	500,000	
			595,847
1807	Hanover	19,899	
	Russia	614,183	
	Hesse Cassel . . .	45,000	
	Prussia	180,000	
			859,082
1808	Spain	1,497,873	
	Sweden	1,100,000	
	Sicily	300,000	
			2,897,873
	Carried forward .		20,095,343

		£.	£.
	Brought forward . .		20,095,343
1809	Spain	529,039	
	Portugal	600,000	
	Sweden	300,000	
	Sicily	300,000	
	Austria	850,000	
			2,579,039
1810	Hesse Cassel . . .	45,150	
	Spain	402,875	
	Portugal	1,237,518	
	Sicily	425,000	
			2,110,543
1811	Spain	220,690	
	Portugal	1,832,168	
	Sicily	275,000	
	Portuguese Sufferers .	39,555	
			2,367 413
1812	Spain	1,000,000	
	Portugal	2,167,832	
	Portuguese Sufferers .	60,445	
	Sicily	400,000	
	Sweden	278,292	
	Morocco	1,952	
			3,908,521
1813	Spain	1,000,000	
	Portugal	1,644,063	
	Sicily	600,000	
	Sweden	1,320,000	
	Russia	657,500	
	Russian Sufferers . .	200,000	
	Prussia	650,040	
	Prince of Orange . .	200,000	
	Austria	500,000	
	Morocco	14,419	
			6,786,022
1814	Spain	450,000	
	Portugal	1,500,000	
	Sicily	316,667	
	Sweden	800,000	
	Russia	2,169,982	
	Prussia	1,319,129	
	Austria	1,064,882	
			7,620,660
	Carried forward . .		45,467,541

		£.	£.
	Brought forward . .		45,467,541
1814	France (advanced to Louis XVIII. to enable him to return to France)	200,000	
	Hanover	500,000	
	Denmark	121,918	
			821,918
			£46,289,459

The direct payments made under the form of loans and subsidies did not form the whole of the contributions made by this country to its allies. Owing to the complicated form in which the public accounts were then rendered to Parliament, it would be a difficult task to unravel the whole of these transactions. It will perhaps afford a sufficient indication of the extent to which our support of the common cause was carried to state the value of the arms, clothing, and other stores that were furnished to our allies in the year 1814, and which were all in addition to the subsidies as detailed in the foregoing statement.

	£.
Austria—Arms and Clothing	410,751
France—Arms sent to the South of France . .	31,932
Hanover—Arms and Clothing	239,879
Holland— .. Ditto	267,759
Oldenburg—Clothing	10,008
Prussia—Arms	11,042
Russia—Provisions and Stores	385,491
Spain—Stores	136,338
Miscellaneous—Arms and Clothing supplied to various foreign Corps	88,845
	£.1,582,045

Chapter V.

MISCELLANEOUS ESTIMATES.

Civil List from 1701 to 1837—Crown Revenues—Pensions—Miscellaneous Services—Salaries in Public Departments.

The remaining branches of public expenditure that call for notice are the Civil List, or the Provision made by Parliament for the support and dignity of the Crown, including the salaries and expenses of the various great officers of state, and the annual votes made for miscellaneous services.

The sums disbursed under these two heads in each year of the present century have been as follow:—

Years.	Civil List.	Miscellaneous Services.	Years.	Civil List.	Miscellaneous Services.
	£.	£.		£.	£.
1801	1,136,860	1,745,917	1819	1,190,692	1,833,791
1802	1,140,839	2,920,327	1820	1,071,758	2,488,781
1803	1,129,437	1,972,430	1821	1,057,000	2,125,991
1804	1,810,215	2,221,611	1822	1,057,000	2,105,797
1805	1,181,305	2,141,552	1823	1,057,000	1,953,366
1806	1,180,923	1,794,382	1824	1,057,000	1,449,148
1807	1,174,590	1,506,371	1825	1,057,000	2,216,081
1808	1,173,117	1,576,378	1826	1,057,000	2,566,783
1809	1,172,800	1,955,971	1827	1,057,000	2,863,247
1810	1,170,343	1,691,272	1828	1,057,000	2,012,116
1811	1,185,276	1,959,799	1829	1,057,000	2,485,661
1812	1,237,370	1,950,031	1830	899,660	1,950,109
1813	1,257,447	1,867,593	1831	511,314	2,854,013
1814	1,236,210	2,480,677	1832	510,000	2,396,921
1815	1,235,879	3,867,592	1833	510,000	2,007,159
1816	1,216,270	2,438,459	1834	510,000	2,061,395
1817	1,235,692	1,839,999	1835	510,000	2,144,345
1818	1,235,692	2,634,916	1836	510,000	2,279,310

The history of the Civil List first dates from the accession of Queen Anne in 1701, when, in consideration of an annuity of 700,000*l.* settled upon the Queen for her life, the proceeds of the crown lands and of certain excise duties which had been granted by Parliament to Charles II. and his successors, were surrendered to the public. The sum here mentioned was applied to defray the expenses of the Queen and her household, to pay the salaries of her ambassadors and other representatives in foreign countries, and to provide for the administration of justice at home, as well as some other minor charges which had previously been defrayed by the Crown out of the revenues that were relinquished. This arrangement ceased at the death of the Queen, when the hereditary revenues reverted to the Crown; but the precedent made by Queen Anne, as here described, has since been followed at the accession of each succeeding monarch. At the beginning of the reign of George III., the civil list was fixed at 800,000*l.* per annum, to which sum additions were made from time to time, partly on the ground of the general enhancement of prices caused by the depreciation of the currency: the sums paid on this account from the consolidated fund in each year from 1801 to the accession of George IV., in 1820, may be known from the foregoing table. By the arrangement made between George IV. and the Parliament in 1820 some part of the charge upon the Civil List was transferred to the consolidated fund, and the payments on the former account were fixed at 850,000*l.* per annum. On the accession of William IV. a fresh distribution of these charges was made, expenses which had no immediate connexion with the royal dignity were transferred to the consolidated fund, and the Civil List was voted under five

different classes, amounting in the aggregate to 510,000*l.* per annum, as follows:—

		£.
1st Class.—	For the King's Privy Purse, 60,000*l.*; for the Queen, 50,000*l.*	110,000
2nd ,,	Salaries of the Royal Household	130,300
3rd ,,	Expenses of the Household	171,500
4th ,,	Special and Home Secret Services	23,200
5th ,,	Pensions	75,000
		510,000

On the recent accession of Queen Victoria, a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the subject of this branch of the public expenditure; and in compliance with the report and recommendation of that Committee, an Act has been passed, in which the principle adopted in 1830 has been preserved, and the Civil List has been fixed at 385,000*l.* per annum, with a power to the Crown to grant pensions to an amount not exceeding 1200*l.* in any one year. The heads under which this arrangement is comprised are as follow:—

		£.
1st Class.—	For the Queen's Privy Purse	60,000
2nd ,,	Salaries of Queen's Household and Retired Allowances	131,260
3rd ,,	Expenses of the Royal Household	172,500
4th ,,	Royal Bounty, Alms, and Special Services	13,200
5th ,,	Pensions to the extent of 1,200*l.* per annum	
6th ,,	Unappropriated Moneys	8,040
		385,000

It would appear from a return that was laid upon the table of the House of Lords in December, 1837, that during the three reigns of George the Third, George the Fourth, and William the Fourth, the public gained considerably

by the arrangements that have been here described. In the first of these reigns, which embraced a period of 59¼ years, the sum paid to the Civil List, including 3,398,062*l.* granted at various times for the discharge of debts contracted on that account, amounted to 56,975,451*l.*, while the amount of the king's hereditary and temporary revenues given up to the public realised 75,138,695*l.*, showing a gain to the public of 18,163,244*l.* In the reign of George IV., which occupied about 10½ years, the payments to the Crown were 8,847,987*l.*, and the receipts by the public 19,732,732*l.*, showing a saving of 10,884,745*l.*; and in the seven years which comprise the reign of William IV., the payments were 3,561,593*l.*, while the receipts were 21,913,388*l.*, so that the public appears to have gained by the arrangement with the late king, 18,351,745*l.* The saving effected during the reign of the three kings amounted according to this return to 37,399,784*l.* The increasing receipts from the ceded revenues have, of late years, made the bargain more favourable to the public than formerly, but it must be kept in mind that many charges once borne by the Crown and now defrayed by the public are not included in this statement.

The Crown is entitled to certain revenues as Duke of Lancaster, and, (while there is no heir apparent) as Duke of Cornwall also; which revenues have not hitherto been relinquished to the public, nor has any statement of their amount been submitted to Parliament. They are still retained by the Queen; but the Ministers have promised, in the name of Her Majesty, that statements of their proceeds shall be annually produced to the House of Commons.

The difference observable between the amount of the Civil List granted at the beginning of his reign to William IV., and that established in 1837, is occasioned, first,

by the absence, at present, of a consort, and next, by the new arrangement made regarding pensions. At the time the Civil List for the Queen was under discussion it had been determined to examine, by means of a Committee of the House of Commons, into the propriety of continuing the various pensions hitherto paid out of the grant of 75,000*l.* per annum. As it could not be known what the result of this inquiry might be, no provision could properly be made by Parliament for meeting the charge for such pensions as it might be thought proper to continue, and the point was reserved to be dealt with by the Legislature, as may be thought fit at a future stage of the proceeding, when the needful provision will have to be made by the House of Commons. Whatever that sum may be, the arrangement of limiting the amount of original pensions that may be granted in any one year to 1200*l.*, can hardly fail to prove a measure of economy on the part of the public, when compared with the arrangement established at the accession of William IV. On the supposition of the continuance of all existing pensions for the lives of the individuals by whom they are enjoyed, the average annual reduction from mortality would not be less than 3000*l.* per annum, if even the ages of the recipients were so low, on the average, as 34 years, which is certainly much under the actual average. In the case supposed, there would therefore be a progressive saving from year to year of 1800*l.*, until the death of the existing pensioners, when the amount to be annually provided by parliament would not exceed 30,000*l.* in place of 75,000*l.* paid under the former arrangement. In proportion as the average ages of the pensioners exceed 34 years, the progressive saving will be greater, and the ultimate charge upon the public less than here stated.

The sums included in the foregoing table under the head of Miscellaneous Services comprise a great variety of objects, and necessarily differ materially from year to year. The nature of these services will be sufficiently indicated by the following abstract, which is taken from the Finance accounts for 1836:—

Payments made in 1836 by Grants of Parliament, under the head of Miscellaneous Services.

	£.
Public Buildings, including National Gallery and temporary Houses of Parliament	149,035
Roads, Canals, Harbours, Light-Houses, and Surveys	144,355
Expenses attending the two Houses of Parliament	57,418
Salaries in Public Departments not otherwise defrayed by fees or by deductions from Revenue in its progress to the Exchequer	193,570
Superannuation allowances in Public Departments	49,692
Contingent Expenses in Public Departments	55,234
Parliamentary and other Commissions, Revising Barristers, and the like expenses	262,811
Civil and Ecclesiastical Establishments in Colonies	95,902
Special Justices in West India Colonies	49,469
Establishing Steam Navigation to India	5,726
Indian Department in Canada, Instruction of Emancipated Negroes and support of Captured Negroes	64,112
Expense of Convicts, Police, and Criminal Prosecutions	282,069
Consular Services	83,229
Scientific and Literary objects	47,267
Charitable Institutions and objects	68,950
Educational purposes	71,546
Printing and Stationery	176,665
Law Charges	24,000
Civil Contingencies, Miscellaneous Services.—Scotland	120,175
Claims of Merchants arising out of War with Denmark	96,442
Secret Services	29,650
Loss sustained by re-coinage of Silver and Gold	46,889
Compensation to Individuals	6,641
Charges formerly paid out of County Rates	69,000
Non-Conforming Ministers	29,463
	2,279,310

The charge for salaries provided for in the grants for Miscellaneous Services forms only a small part of the yearly expenses incurred for that purpose. Office-bearers employed under the different Boards for the collection of the Revenue are paid out of the receipts of the Departments respectively, their salaries being considered, as in fact they are, a part of the charges of collection, and the net proceeds of the Revenue being all that is paid into the Exchequer. It cannot make any real difference to the public whether this system shall be continued, or whether, as some persons have recommended, the gross amount of the collection is paid into the Exchequer, and the charges of the respective Departments are issued from that office. It has been supposed that by the latter mode a more direct and efficient check would be obtained over the expenditure; but this could hardly be the case, if, as may be presumed, the payments must be made upon the orders of the various Boards of Commissioners, who are at present responsible for the faithful and economical disposal of the funds that come under their charge. The various items that now form deductions from the gross receipts before they reach the Exchequer are all given in detail in the public accounts, and are as much subject to examination, and as open to animadversion, as they could be made upon any other plan.

No statement has been made public of the amount paid for salaries in the various departments of the public service during the years that elapsed prior to 1815. During the war, that branch of expenditure had gone on at a constantly increasing rate of progression, and in the year just mentioned had reached the sum of 3,763,100*l*. It will be seen from the following statement that in the 20 years that have followed reductions to the amount of 26 per cent. have been made. These reductions would

have been greater, but for the annual allowances that it has been considered just to make to persons whose offices have been abolished, and who entered the public service upon the faith of such a provision being made.

The charge for salaries in the various public departments of the kingdom in each year, from 1815 to 1835, was as follows:—

	£.		£.
1815 ...	3,763,100	1826 ...	3,285,022
1816 ...	3,745,478	1827 ...	3,248,719
1817 ...	3,633,981	1828 ...	3,204,398
1818 ...	3,601,720	1829 ...	3,185,334
1819 ...	3,587,122	1830 ...	3,120,034
1820 ...	3,564,594	1831 ...	3,055,512
1821 ...	3,562,528	1832 ...	2,934,144
1822 ...	3,453,211	1833 ...	2,853,503
1823 ...	3,368,218	1834 ...	2,828,562
1824 ...	3,281,693	1835 ...	2,786,278
1825 ...	3,260,370		

The number of persons employed in the various departments (exclusive of Army, Navy, &c.) and the amount of salaries paid in each department in the years 1815 and 1835, are shown in the following table, from which it appears that the reduction since the war has been 3787 persons and 976,822*l.*, being about 14 per cent. in the number and 26 per cent. in the amount. It appears from a statement presented to Parliament in 1828, but which exhibits several omissions and cannot be received with much confidence, that the reduction in the twelve years from 1815 to 1827 embraced 1686 persons and 413,532*l.*, or 6 per cent. in number, and 11 per cent. in amount: according to which statement, there were reductions made in the eight years from 1827 to 1835 amounting to 2101 persons and 563,290*l.* of annual charge, or 8 per cent. in number, and nearly 17 per cent.

in amount. The reductions between 1815 and 1835 would have appeared much more considerable, but for the addition of 3913 persons forming the preventive coast-guard under the Commissioners of the Customs, and whose salaries, amounting to 259,916*l.* per annum, had before been paid out of the Navy Estimates.

DEPARTMENTS.	ESTABLISHMENT. 1815. No. of Persons.	ESTABLISHMENT. 1815. Amount of Salaries.	ESTABLISHMENT. 1835. No. of Persons.	ESTABLISHMENT. 1835. Amount of Salaries.	REDUCTIONS. No. of Persons.	REDUCTIONS. Amount of Salaries.	ADDITIONS. No. of Persons.	ADDITIONS. Amount of Salaries.
		£.		£.		£.		£.
Treasury, including Commissariat and Solicitor	155	83,767	92	56,346	63	27,421	..	..
Exchequer Offices	90	73,528	14	7,005	56	58,994	..	..
Paymaster of Civil Services	..	..	20	7,529				
Privy Council Office	21	12,830	18	9,958	3	2,872	..	..
,, for Trade	20	5,423	29	11,331	..	..	9	5,908
Secretary of State, Home Department	31	22,177	30	19,678	1	2,499	..	..
Foreign	33	23,337	39	21,584	..	1,753	6	..
Colonial	25	19,985	31	20,487	..	..	6	502
India Board	33	22,966	38	21,300	..	1,666	5	..
Privy Seal Office	1	3,000	1	2,000	..	1,000	..	..
Mint Office	19	3,710	7	1,161	12	2,549	..	..
Registers of Colonial Slaves' Office	..	..	4	1,210	..	..	4	1,210
Stamp-Paper Office	6	1,083	6	1,573	..	..	..	490
Commander-in-Chief's Office	29	8,078	21	7,167	8	911	..	..
Adjutant General's Office	29	3,968	22	3,870	7	98	..	..
Quartermaster-General's Office	21	3,024	19	2,210	2	814	..	..
War Office, including Office for Military Boards.	215	61,544	84	32,042	131	29,502	..	..
Judge Advocate General's Office	8	4,630	7	3,460	1	1,170	..	..
Army Medical Board Office	14	6,372	5	2,850	9	3,522	..	..
Chaplain General's Office	3	963	2	276	1	687	..	..
Army Pay Office	81	22,295	51	17,614	30	4,681	..	..
Finance Department	1,907	281,302	996	159,128	911	122,174	..	..
Chelsea Hospital, including Secretary's Agent's, and Treasurer's Office.	91	14,337	157	23,999	..	..	66	9,662
Royal Military College	144	20,565	80	..	64	20,565	..	..
Royal Military Asylum	78	3,581	67	3,699	11	..	..	118
Admiralty and Naval Departments	2,146	531,460	821	227,971	1,325	303,489	..	..
Carried forward	5,200	1,233,925	2,661	665,448	2,635	586,367	96	17,890

DEPARTMENTS.	ESTABLISHMENT. 1815. No. of Persons.	1815. Amount of Salaries.	1835. No. of Persons.	1835. Amount of Salaries.	REDUCTIONS. No. of Persons.	Amount of Salaries.	ADDITIONS. No. of Persons.	Amount of Salaries
		£.		£.		£.		£
Brought forward	5,200	1,233,925	2,661	665,448	2,635	586,367	96	17,290
Customs Department, including Coast Guard.	10,477	971,162	11,602	940,762	..	30,400	1,125	..
Excise Department	7,926	874,757	6,072	722,456	1,854	152,301	..	..
Stamps and Taxes ditto .	1,063	210,276	660	106,347	403	103,929	..	..
Post Office	1,456	115,974	1,774	124,439	..	..	318	8,465
Mint Office	28	10,313	30	10,110	..	203	2	..
Audit Office, and other Offices transferred to that Department.	282	93,128	130	39,050	152	54,078	..	..
National Debt Office	8	2,978	31	8,717	..	..	23	5,739
Exchequer Bill Office ...	13	3,800	11	3,610	2	190	..	..
Woods, Forests, Land Revenue, and Public Works Office.	79	18,594	60	18,445	19	149	..	..
Stationery Office	43	5,779	34	5,070	11	709	..	..
Alienation Office	8	760	7	800	1	..	..	40
Lottery Office	93	10,382	..	..	93	10,382	..	..
Exchequer & other Departments in SCOTLAND.	325	123,261	296	94,782	29	28,479	..	..
IRELAND.								
Chief Secretary's Office .	71	20,602	38	14,536	33	6,066	..	..
Chief Secretary's Office in London	12	2,770	8	2,410	4	360	..	..
Privy Council Office	7	2,575	7	2,575	..	..	..	..
Vice Treasurer's Office, late Irish Treasury, &c.	57	28,769	13	4,964	44	23,805	..	..
Tellers' Office, Exchequer	6	2,026	5	1,680	1	346	..	..
Privy Seal Office	2	1,384	2	100	..	1,284	..	..
Office of Public Works.	62	10,328	19	5,096	43	5,232	..	..
Office of Lieutenant-General Commanding.	6	2,014	6	1,066	..	948	..	..
Army Medical Office ...	7	1,934	3	1,044	4	890	..	..
Quartermaster-General's Office	8	1,122	6	664	2	458	..	..
Deputy Judge Advocate General's Office.	2	969	1	597	1	372	..	..
Provost Marshal General's Office	3	223	1	168	2	55	..	..
Adjutant General's Office	16	1,192	9	1,018	7	174	..	..
Commissariat Department.	40	7,449	12	2,248	28	5,201	..	..
Royal Hospital, Kilmainham.	62	4,516	54	3,136	8	1,380	..	..
Board of Charitable Donations	1	138	1	184	..	..	..	..
Board of Education	..	..	25	4,755	..	..	25	4,755
	27,365	3,763,100	23,578	2,786,278	5,376	1,013,758	1,589	36,936
Abate Additions					1,589	36,936		
Total Reduction as compared with 1815					3,787	976,822		

Chapter VI.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF FRANCE AND AMERICA.

Revenues of France—Expenditure—Charges caused by Army of Occupation—Interest of Debt—Sinking Fund—Military Expenditure—Financial condition of America—Surplus Revenue—Receipts and Expenditure—Taxation in individual States.

It has not been customary for continental governments to make known to their subjects or to the world at large the amount of their public income and expenditure. The sources from which their revenues are derived, and the objects to which their disbursements are directed, have for the most part been studiously concealed, and where, as in some few cases, statements have occasionally been suffered to appear, it has seldom been possible to receive them with much reliance upon their accuracy. Within the last few years the French government has undertaken the task of compiling and publishing statistical details connected with that kingdom, and among these details, financial statements necessarily find a place. There is no reason to doubt the accuracy of the accounts thus presented, and it is satisfactory to be thus able to present the means of comparing the chief branches of public receipt and expenditure in France and the United Kingdom. For this purpose the following abstracts are given: to facilitate the investigations, the sums have been converted into English money at the exchange of 25 francs to the pound sterling.

The amount of the public revenue of France in each year from 1814 to 1836 is shown in the following Table:

Years.	Ordinary Revenues.	Extraordinary Receipts, chiefly by the creation of Debt.	Total Revenue.
	£.	£.	£.
1814	18,710,013	3,692,197	22,402,210
1815	29,166,183	5,886,546	35,052,729
1816	35,156,134	6,316,040	41,472,174
1817	35,992,545	14,819,957	50,812,502
1818	37,510,060	19,053,167	56,563,227
1819	35,815,473	1,650,878	37,466,351
1820	37,337,582	231,940	37,569,522
1821	37,140,622	285,500	37,426,122
1822	37,497,106	659,744	38,156,850
1823	36,965,657	4,959,239	41,924,896
1824	38,429,055	1,172,788	39,601,843
1825	39,070,133	..	39,070,133
1826	39,275,309	..	39,275,309
1827	37,918,044	..	37,918,044
1828	39,110,490	2,020,507	41,130,997
1829	39,731,816	1,179,492	40,911,308
1830	38,573,707	2,238,256	40,811,963
1831	37,665,795	14,597,117	52,262,912
1832	39,292,645	3,268,607	42,561,252
1833	39,492,644	6,827,119	46,319,763
1834	40,067,101	285,773	40,352,874
1835	40,898,509	559,687	41,458,196
1836	42,192,309		42,192,309

The public expenditure of France in each year from 1814 to 1836, stated in sterling money, was as under :—

1814 . .	£22,891,743 (9 months.)	1825 . .	£39,278,904
		1826 . .	39,077,956
1815 . .	37,257,656	1827 . .	39,461,390
1816 . .	42,234,161	1828 . .	40,964,025
1817 . .	47,570,145	1829 . .	40,596,577
1818 . .	57,349,866	1830 . .	43,805,684
1819 . .	35,840,001	1831 . .	48,584,439
1820 . .	36,269,186	1832 . .	46,984,830
1821 . .	36,333,774	1833 . .	45,362,916
1822 . .	37,966,999	1834 . .	42,542,377
1823 . .	44,721,006	1835 . .	42,981,273
1824 . .	39,442,953	1836 . .	44,225,856

The expenditure in the first five years of the above series was greatly increased by the expenses of the army of occupation and the contributions paid to the allies. These charges amounted in each of those years to the following sums:—

Year.	Expenses of the Allied Armies.	Contributions paid to the Allies.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
1814	..	1,000,000	1,000,000
1815	..	7,200,000	7,200,000
1816	5,871,991	5,600,000	11,471,991
1817	7,308,594	5,600,000	12,908,594
1818	5,804,939	16,200,000	22,004,939
	18,985,524	35,600,000	54,585,524

The interest on the national debt of France during the above years amounted to the following sums:—

1814	£3,839,484	1826	£7,983,882
1815	3,939,716	1827	7,810,779
1816	4,725,408	1828	7,908,833
1817	7,075,040	1829	8,033,432
1818	7,103,652	1830	8,066,620
1819	8,547,309	1831	8,289,828
1820	8,566,537	1832	8,614,524
1821	8,522,713	1833	8,791,902
1822	7,118,450	1834	7,477,321
1823	7,184,791	1835	7,524,110
1824	7,882,569	1836	7,707,498
1825	7,875,797		

In addition to the above sums, there is an annual issue from the treasury towards the sinking-fund. The payments for this object were—

	£.
In 1816	800,000
In each year from 1817 to 1829	1,600,000

	£.		£.
In 1830 .	1,666,602	1834 .	1,784,658
In 1831 .	1,723,744	1835 .	1,784,658
In 1832 .	1,731,062	1836 .	1,784,658
In 1833 .	1,784,658		

The charges on account of the army and navy in those years were—

Years.	Army.	Navy.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
1814	10,111,353	1,902,336	12,013,689
1815	13,129,785	1,583,707	14,713,492
1816	8,730,612	1,918,488	10,649,100
1817	7,183,740	1,759,828	8,943,568
1818	6,060,990	1,786,780	7,847,770
1819	7,192,163	1,774,627	8,966,790
1820	7,143,158	1,976,598	9,119,756
1821	6,951,421	2,081,019	9,032,440
1822	7,696,460	2,397,817	10,094,277
1823	13,743,299	2,959,224	16,702,523
1824	8,727,230	2,549,037	11,276,267
1825	8,161,152	2,477,366	10,638,518
1826	8,363,029	2,349,969	10,712,998
1827	8,402,319	2,506,017	10,908,336
1828	8,969,286	3,221,542	12,190,828
1829	8,583,057	2,917,386	11,500,443
1830	9,352,909	3,614,683	12,967,592
1831	15,464,994	2,854,491	18,319,185
1832	13,565,775	2,566,289	16,132,064
1833	12,039,242	2,550,264	14,589,506
1834	10,217,704	2,471,170	12,688,874
1835	9,649,086	2,506,920	12,156,006
1836	9,045,458	2,696,721	11,742,179

The augmentation of charge between 1821 and 1823 was occasioned by the invasion of Spain, previously to which the army collected upon the frontier towards Spain, under the name of the Cordon Sanitaire, had necessarily led to increased expenditure. The invasion of the Morea in 1828, and of Algiers in 1830, will

sufficiently account for the increased expenditure from that time.

The financial condition of the United States of America is without a parallel among the great nations of Europe. At the beginning of this century the States had accumulated a debt amounting to 82,000,167 dollars (17,083,368*l.*). Between that time and the breaking out of the war with England this debt was reduced to 45,035,123 dollars (9,382,317*l.*); but was again so materially increased by that event that, in 1816, it amounted to 123,016,325 dollars (25,628,401*l.*). With the return of peace the public revenue again became greater than the wants of the State, and the diminution of the debt was effected so rapidly, that in the course of 1834 it was wholly extinguished; a truly enviable position, which in all probability would equally have been the present condition of England, but for those fatal errors which led to the loss of our American provinces, and to the series of wars and other evil consequences which followed that dismemberment of the Empire. Since that time the government of the United States has encountered a very unusual kind of embarrassment arising out of the difficulty of disposing equitably and profitably of the surplus income. That surplus, remaining in the treasury on the 1st January 1837, 43,000,000 of dollars, was by an act of Congress, passed in June 1836, to be distributed among the several States of the Union, by quarterly payments, in January, April, July, and October, 1837, the apportionment being made agreeably to the number of electors' votes for president assigned to each state. The commercial derangement of 1836-7 has opposed a temporary check to this arrangement, the sudden falling off in the revenue, nearly the whole of which is derived from import duties and the sale of

public lands, having made it impracticable, for a time at least, to make the last of these quarterly payments to the individual States. This derangement is, however, of only a temporary nature, and, with the return of commercial prosperity, the government will again find itself incumbered with surplus funds, unless it shall wisely repeal duties on foreign goods, imposed for the presumed advantage of certain native manufacturers.

The following statement shows the receipts and appropriations of the central governments of the United States, in each year from 1815 to 1836; the appropriations include sums paid for the redemption of the debt.

Statement of the amount of receipts into the Treasury, and appropriations made by law, for the general government of the United States of America, in each year, from 1815 to 1836, converted into sterling money at the rate of 4*s.* 2*d.* per dollar.

	Receipts. £.	Appropriations. £.
1815 ...	10,616,924 ...	6,514,231
1816 ...	11,898,796 ...	10,396,921
1817 ...	7,048,665 ...	7,627,734
1818 ...	4,498,736 ...	7,561,946
1819 ...	5,126,180 ...	5,022,804
1820 ...	4,350,311 ...	5,311,990
1821 ...	4,048,688 ...	3,882,430
1822 ...	4,215,089 ...	4,272,504
1823 ...	4,279,305 ...	4,206,273
1824 ...	5,079,419 ...	5,381,382
1825 ...	5,585,595 ...	4,769,280
1826 ...	5,262,590 ...	4,844,877
1827 ...	4,784,659 ...	4,836,935
1828 ...	5,159,089 ...	5,304,658
1829 ...	5,159,817 ...	5,223,128
1830 ...	5,175,857 ...	5,121,933
1831 ...	7,405,888 ...	6,258,009
1832 ...	6,638,658 ...	7,157,645
1833 ...	7,072,588 ...	5,053,604

	Receipts. £.	Appropriations. £.
1834 ...	4,539,986 ...	5,125,413
1835 ...	7,377,101 ...	3,660,988
1836 ...	10,182,076 ...	6,178,176

The foregoing statement does not exhibit a complete account of the revenue raised from the American citizens, who are called upon to pay taxes of various kinds for the support of the local government of each several State. It is not possible to give with perfect accuracy the amount thus raised, but a near approximation to the truth may be offered. The public revenues of each of the principal States have been ascertained for some one of the last five years, and as the population of those States amounts to 11,500,000 out of 12,800,000 American citizens, a computation founded upon that data cannot be far from correct. We thus find that the annual revenue received for public purposes, in addition to that collected by the central government, amounts to 10,467,058 dollars, or 2,180,637*l.*; but an important part of this revenue proceeds from tolls on canals and railroads, or from dividends on bank shares, the property of the States. If, however, we assume that the whole sum is the produce of taxation, and add it to the proportion of the revenue of the central government in 1835, which was raised in that form, it appears that the whole sum contributed in taxes, by the people of the United States in that year, amounted to 6,220,493*l.*, which, if equally divided among the inhabitants, would amount to 9*s.* 8*d.* per head. A great part of the revenues of the individual States are employed for the support of schools and the prosecution of public works, matters which, in this country, are almost wholly left to the encouragement of private enterprise and individual benevolence.

Chapter VII.

COUNTY AND PAROCHIAL EXPENDITURE.

Local Taxation—Poor Rates—Comparative condition of different Counties as regards those Rates—Sums assessed in each County at different periods of this Century—County Rates—Amount levied in 1834—Objects to which the money was applied, compared with 1792.

The expenditure of the central government of this country forms by far the largest part, but not the whole of the contributions levied from individuals for purposes beyond their own immediate and personal wants or gratifications. We are now in a great measure freed from the burthen of partial taxation; such local rates as exist are levied for objects peculiar to the locality in which such contributions are raised. Some few of such partial taxes still remain, but only in circumstances which admit of this plea in justification, that their produce is applied to purposes peculiarly advantageous to the spot in which they are levied. Of this kind is the duty upon coals charged in the port of London, in order to pay the cost of providing suitable approaches to London Bridge. It is by no means clear to every body that the object mentioned is of that strictly local advantage which justifies the imposing of a partial tax for its accomplishment, and it has been urged that it is for the general convenience that roads and bridges which facilitate the approach to the metropolis should be constructed and maintained at the general charge of the country.

For the most part taxes levied for local purposes in England are voted in parochial assemblies, by those who are to pay them, or by their delegates or representatives, and of these taxes by far the largest part consists of an assessment for the support of the indigent poor. The following statement exhibits the sums raised for this purpose, and their distribution at various periods, from the middle of the eighteenth century to the year ending 25th March, 1813, and thereafter, for every year until 25th March, 1837.

	Total sum assessed and levied.	Payments thereout for other purposes than the relief of the poor.	Sums expended in law, removals, &c.	Sums expended for the relief of the poor.	Total sums expended.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Average of 1748-49-50	730,135	40,164	No Acct.	689,971	No Account.
1776	1,720,316	137,655	35,071	1,521,732	1,694,458
Average of 1783-84-85	2,167,748	163,511	91,996	1,912,241	2,167,148
1803	5,348,204	1,034,165	190,072	4,077,891	5,302,070
1812—13	8,640,842	1,861,073	325,107	6,656,105	8,865,838
1813—14	8,388,974	1,881,565	332,966	6,294,584	8,511,863
1814—15	7,457,676	1,763,020	324,664	5,418,845	7,508,853
1815—16	6,934,425	1,212,918	..	5,724,506	6,937,424
1816—17	8,128,418	1,210,200	..	6,918,217	8,128,417
1817—18	9,320,440	1,430,292	..	7,890,148	9,320,440
1918—19	8,932,185	1,300,534	..	7,531,650	8,832,184
1819—20	8,719,655	1,342,658	..	7,329,594	8,672,252
1820—21	8,411,893	1,375,868	..	6,958,445	8,334,313
1821—22	7,761,441	1,336,533	..	6,358,703	7,695,236
1822—23	6,898,153	1,148,230	..	5,773,096	6,921,326
1823—24	6,833,630	1,137,598	..	5,736,898	6,874,496
1824—25	6,972,323	1,212,199	..	5,786,989	6,999,188
1825—26	6,965,051	1,246,145	..	5,928,501	7,174,646
1826—27	7,784,352	1,362,377	..	6,441,088	7,803,465
1827—28	7,715,055	1,372,433	..	6,298,000	7,670,433
1828—29	7,642,171	1,280,328	..	6,332·410	7,612,738
1829—30	8,161,281	1,322,239	..	6,829·042	8,151,281
1830—31	8,279,217	1,540,198	..	6,798,889	8,339,087
1831—32	8,622,920	1,646,493	..	7,036,968	8,683,461
1832—33	8,606,501	1,694,670	254,412	6,790,800	8,739,882
1833—34	8,338,078	1,713,489	258,604	6,317,255	8,289,348
1834—35	7,373,807	1,641,073	202,527	5,526,418	7,370,018
1835—36	6,354,538	1,523,058	172,431	4,717,630	6,413,119
1836—37	5,294,566	1,241,246	126,951	4,044,741	5,412,938

The subject of pauperism having been treated at some length in the first section of this work, it is not necessary again to enter upon its discussion. It is impossible, however, to dismiss the foregoing Table without calling attention to the extraordinary amount of reduction in the sums expended for the relief of the poor which has been realised since the first agitation of the inquiry that led to the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834. The Commissioners entrusted to make the preliminary inquiries were appointed and commenced their task in 1832. Public attention having thus been drawn to the numerous abuses that had crept into the management of the funds assessed for relieving the poor, some abatement in the expenditure was immediately apparent. It is proper, therefore, to take as the point of comparison with future years the expenditure in the year preceding that inquiry, viz. from 25th March, 1831, to 25th March, 1832. The disbursements on this account then amounted to 7,036,968*l.* In the next year, 1832-33, the expenditure fell to 6,790,800*l.*, showing an abatement of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The difference between 1831-32 and 1833-34 was $10\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. Between the former year and 1834-35 the difference was 17 per cent. In the following year it reached 33 per cent., and the difference in favour of the year ending 25th March, 1837, as compared with the year 1831-32 was $42\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. If the comparison is made with the year 1834, in which the amended law came into operation, it will be found that the pecuniary saving to the rate-payers in 1836-7 has been $26\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

There is every reason to hope that the result here stated is by no means the greatest benefit that has followed the altered administration of the laws for the relief of the poor. The plan, steadily pursued, of refusing all

relief to the able-bodied, except within the workhouses, has had an effect for the extent of which it is difficult fully to account, in converting the idle to habits of industry, and by that means increasing the demand for labour, since employers can now rely upon obtaining its value for the money which they so disburse. The following extract from a letter written by Mr. Woolley, formerly a land-agent, now an Assistant-Commissioner for the commutation of tithes, and addressed to Mr. Gulson, one of the Assistant Poor Law Commissioners, states the advantages to the labouring population of a measure which some persons have ventured to stigmatise as replete with cruelty, and draws from his observation a conclusion which cannot but be gratifying to every candid and generous mind:—

"I wanted to talk with you on the almost magical effect I find produced by the new poor laws in the south. There I had seen the evil in its 'riotings.' I saw no chance but ruin or change—prompt, effectual, decided, radical change. I began to fear the thing had been pushed too far, the remedy too long deferred; but I am perfectly delighted to find that I was mistaken. The change has been made, and the effect is more than any one could have hoped. I have, in my professional engagement as Assistant Tithe Commissioner, been much in Sussex and the Weald of Kent. I have seen the effect on the poor-rates, the character of the population, the improvement of the land—such a change! I have talked with all sorts of persons, of all sorts of opinions on other subjects, and have heard but *one* opinion on this—that the measure has saved the country.

"I am sick of the pitiful cry attempted to be raised against the measure, and especially at the supposed inhumanity of it. Let any man see the straightforward walk, the upright look of the labourer, as contrasted

with what was before seen at every step in those counties. The sturdy and idle nuisance has already become the useful industrious member of society. No man who has not looked well into human nature, and the practical working of the wretched system of pauperism, can form an idea how different is sixpence earned by honest industry, and sixpence wrung from the pay-table of a parish officer. I am fully convinced that the measure has doubled the value of property in many parts of the kingdom.

"This is important; but pounds, shillings, and pence will not measure the value of the change in character which is already visible, and which I am well convinced will develop itself more and more."

The following Table exhibits the amount expended in each county for the relief of the poor in the individual years when the census was taken, and also the average amount per head that would have been paid on the account in each county if the burthen had been equally distributed among the whole number of the inhabitants. The statement has been continued for the year 1836-37, for which purpose the population of the several counties has been assumed to have increased at the same rates as the increase ascertained to have occurred between 1821 and 1831. It appears from this calculation that although the actual expenditure was greater in 1836-37 than it was in 1801 by the sum of 26,870*l.*, or a little more than one-half per cent., the virtual diminution has been upwards of 40 per cent. When compared with 1811, the saving in 1836-37 amounts to 59 per cent.; it is 49 per cent. upon the disbursements of 1821 and 44 per cent. upon those of 1831.—(See Table, pp. 362-3.)

In describing the proportionate numbers of persons engaged in agriculture and in other pursuits (Chap. III. Sec. 1), a table was given in which was stated the nu-

merical order in which the counties of England stood relatively to each other in those respects in 1811, 1821, and 1831. The following Table repeats the information as regards the last of those years, and gives a further column showing the relation of the counties to each other in respect of payments for the relief of the poor. In this Table, No. 1 in the respective columns signifies the county in which are the greatest number of agriculturists —the county in which are the greatest number belonging to non-agricultural classes, and the county in which the assessment for the relief of the poor is the least, taken with reference to the population.

Table showing the numerical order in which the different Counties of England stood relatively to each other, with reference to the proportional number of their population engaged in agriculture or otherwise at the decennary enumeration of 1831, and also with reference to the burthen of Poor Rates in the year 1836–7.

COUNTIES.	Agricultural Classes.	Other Classes.	Poor Rate Assessment.	COUNTIES.	Agricultural Classes.	Other Classes.	Poor Rate Assessment.
Bedfordshire	1	42	29	Monmouthshire	31	12	3
Berkshire	14	29	30	Norfolk	15	28	41
Buckinghamshire	7	36	38	Northampton	12	31	34
Cambridgeshire	6	37	36	Northumberland	37	6	14
Cheshire	34	9	4	Nottinghamshire	30	13	6
Cornwall	27	16	9	Oxfordshire	11	32	39
Cumberland	28	15	5	Rutlandshire	3	40	23
Derbyshire	32	11	8	Salop	20	23	11
Devonshire	24	19	22	Somersetshire	21	22	20
Dorsetshire	17	26	26	Southampton	22	21	32
Durham	39	4	10	Staffordshire	36	7	7
Essex	8	35	37	Suffolk	9	34	42
Gloucestershire	33	10	15	Surrey	40	3	18
Herefordshire	4	39	25	Sussex	18	25	35
Hertfordshire	13	30	24	Warwickshire	35	8	17
Huntingdonshire	2	41	33	Westmoreland	19	24	19
Kent	25	18	28	Wiltshire	10	33	40
Lancashire	41	2	1	Worcestershire	26	17	12
Leicestershire	29	14	16	Yorkshire, East Riding	23	20	31
Lincolnshire	5	38	27	———North Riding	16	27	21
Middlesex	42	1	13	———West Riding	38	5	2

COUNTIES.	1801.		1811.		1821.		1831.		1836.	
	Expended for relief of the Poor.	Average Expenditure per head.	Expended for relief of the Poor	Average Expenditure per head	Expended for relief of the Poor.	Average Expenditure per head.	Expended for relief of the Poor.	Average Expenditure per head.	Expended for relief of the Poor.	Average Expenditure per head.
	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.
Bedford	36,891	11 7	61,273	17 5	68,826	16 5	81,016	15 11	37,550	7 4
Berks	81,994	15 0	160,873	27 2	104,338	15 9	115,070	15 10	56,618	7 5
Bucks	86,155	16 0	133,949	22 9	117,477	17 6	137,356	18 8	63,329	8 3
Cambridge	54,484	12 2	85,824	16 11	87,972	14 5	98,522	13 8	62,722	8 0
Chester	66,627	6 11	114,370	10 0	104,081	7 8	103,572	6 2	67,917	3 8
Cornwall	54,648	5 9	103,736	17 10	104,178	8 1	102,151	6 9	70,653	4 4
Cumberland	27,603	4 8	44,985	6 8	52,352	6 8	46,167	5 5	32,598	3 8
Derby	54,459	6 9	93,963	10 1	86,756	8 1	78,717	6 7	48,867	3 11
Devon	124,022	7 2	217,757	11 4	207,686	9 5	233,074	9 0	161,696	6 2
Dorset	64,771	11 2	109,304	17 6	85,647	11 10	90,668	11 4	58,267	6 11
Durham	51,966	6 5	81,752	9 2	91,182	8 9	84,862	6 5	60,594	4 4
Essex	137,140	12 1	312,230	24 8	254,837	17 7	272,593	17 2	148,654	8 0
Gloucester	109,045	8 8	165,576	11 7	152,994	9 1	108,288	8 8	105,670	5 1
Hereford	46,471	10 5	82,941	17 7	62,728	12 1	62,622	11 3	39,218	6 9
Hertford	56,380	11 6	76,701	13 8	89,129	13 9	94,336	13 1	49,670	6 7
Huntingdon	23,867	12 8	35,413	16 9	39,429	16 2	40,474	15 2	21,676	7 9
Kent	206,598	13 5	317,990	17 0	370,711	17 4	345,512	14 5	185,503	7 3
Lancaster	148,282	4 4	306,797	7 4	249,585	4 8	233,226	4 4	183,790	2 5
Leicester	79,911	12 3	110,560	14 8	124,244	14 2	113,951	11 6	55,019	5 3
Lincoln	95,575	9 2	129,343	10 10	168,786	11 11	174,055	10 11	111,242	6 11
Middlesex	349,200	8 6	592,967	10 6	583,055	10 2	681,567	10 0	360,981	4 11
Monmouth	18,283	8 0	28,247	9 1	26,040	7 3	26,613	5 5	19,487	3 5
Norfolk	169,733	12 5	291,591	19 11	256,044	14 10	299,357	15 4	177,538	8 6
Northampton	94,607	14 4	139,675	19 9	145,093	17 10	150,816	16 9	74,072	7 11
Northumberland	52,416	6 8	72,851	8 5	77,505	7 9	74,092	6 7	59,363	5 0
Nottingham	44,922	6 3	88,013	10 9	78,315	7 10	72,747	6 5	46,562	3 9
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	115,636	16 10	130,043	17 1	66,383	8 4

| | | |

It appears from this Table that the burthen of the poor's rate in proportion to the population is generally greatest in the most agricultural counties. Suffolk, Norfolk, Wiltshire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, and Cambridgeshire, all essentially agricultural, are the most heavily burthened with poor; while Lancashire, the West Riding of Yorkshire, Cheshire, Staffordshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire, which are of an opposite character, enjoy a comparative exemption from that burthen.

Provision has been made by various statutes for defraying the expense of certain miscellaneous public objects, by means of a local tax imposed through the agency of the Justices of the Peace in their several counties, and which tax bears the name of a county rate.

The principal objects for which provision is thus made are, the repairing of bridges in decay, building and repairing gaols, houses of correction, shire-halls and courts of justice, the construction and support of lunatic asylums, the expense of criminal prosecutions, the conveyance of prisoners to and from places of confinement before and after trial, the apprehending of vagrants, the expenses of coroners, of militia, of county elections, and various minor sources of expense, which it is needless to specify.

The amount of county rates received at different periods in the present century, by the Treasurers of counties in England and Wales, has been stated as follows, in Reports made to the two Houses of Parliament by Committees appointed for the purpose:

Year ending 25th March.	£.	Year ending 25th March.	£.
1803 ...	235,844	1822 ...	618,278
1813 ...	510,730	1823 ...	514,381
1821 ...	615,159	1824 ...	546,025

Year ending 25th March.	£.	Year ending 25th March.	£.
1825 ...	510,179	1830 ...	683,312
1826 ...	701,019	1831 ...	749,597
1827 ...	693,864	1832 ...	779,883
1828 ...	707,460	1833 ...	768,198
1829 ...	710,235	1834 ...	693,747

The proportions in which the rate was contributed in the several counties in 1834, and the rate in the pound —supposing the levies to have been made on the annual value of real property as the same was assessed to the property-tax in April, 1815—were as follow:—

COUNTIES.	Amount Levied.	Rate in the Pound.	COUNTIES.	Amount Levied.	Rate in the Pound.
	£.	d.		£.	d.
Bedford	5,091	3¾	Stafford	15,939	3¾
Berks	8,436	3	Suffolk	15,879	3½
Bucks	14,020	5	Surrey	25,872	3¾
Cambridge	6,841	2¾	Sussex	17,859	4¼
Chester	41,082	9	Warwick	15,336	2¾
Cornwall	8,024	2	Westmoreland	3,647	2¾
Cumberland	11,162	3¾	Wilts	14,480	3
Derby	12,311	3¼	Worcester	9,295	2¾
Devon	14,734	1¾	York—East Riding	8,210	1¼
Dorset	8,938	3	„ North Riding	16,297	3¼
Durham	9,941	3	„ West Riding	41,671	4
Essex	18,848	2½			
Gloucester	16,103	2¼	Total of England	651,972	3
Hants	19,618	4			
Hereford	5,366	2	Anglesey	1,986	5
Hertford	5,501	2¼	Brecon	3,880	6¼
Huntingdon	4,150	3	Cardigan	1,723	2¼
Kent	16,693	2¼	Caermarthen	4,962	4½
Lancaster	39,169	3	Carnarvon	3,892	7¼
Leicester	15,182	4	Denbigh	5,254	5
Lincoln	25,941	3	Flint	3,121	4¾
Middlesex	69,374	2¾	Glamorgan	5,621	4
Monmouth	4,941	4	Merioneth	1,660	3¾
Norfolk	15,876	2¼	Montgomery	5,307	6
Northampton	6,801	1¾	Pembroke	2,568	2¾
Northumberland	7,067	1¼	Radnor	1,801	6½
Nottingham	15,233	4¼			
Oxford	8,775	2¼	Total of Wales	41,775	4¼
Rutland	1,288	2¾			
Salop	9,881	2¾	Total of England and Wales	693,747	3
Somerset	19,130	2¾			

The amount disbursed in the same year, under the

different heads of expenditure, for which provision is made by this means, was as follows:—

	£.
Bridges, building and repairs, &c.	72,532
Gaols, Houses of Correction, &c., and maintaining Prisoners, &c.	222,787
Shire Halls and Courts of Justice, building, repairing, &c.	13,951
Lunatic Asylums	12,371
Prosecutions	131,416
Clerks of the Peace	31,880
Conveyance of Prisoners, before trial	31,030
Conveyance of Transports	10,370
Vagrants, apprehending and conveying	7,621
Constables, High and Special	14,007
Coroner	15,648
Debt, payment of Principal and Interest	78,022
Miscellaneous	52,112
	693,747

No means are afforded for comparing the rate of expenditure under various heads with the payments at the beginning of the present century. Such an account has been given for 1792, and is as follows:—

	£.
Bridges	42,237
Gaols, Houses of Correction, &c.	92,319
Maintenance of Prisoners	45,785
Vagrants	16,807
Prosecutions	34,218
Lieutenancy and Militia	16,976
Constables	659
Professional Charges	8,990
Coroners	8,153
Salaries	16,315
Incidental Expenses	17,456
Miscellaneous	15,890
	315,805

It will be seen from the foregoing abstracts that the expenses occasioned by criminal prosecutions and by the

maintenance of prisoners form a considerable item in the annual disbursements. This was, in 1835, a subject of complaint on the part of the country-gentlemen, who contended that it was unfair to subject them to the cost of repressing crimes committed against society at large. It will be seen, by comparing the abstracts above, for the years 1792 and 1834, that the increase in this branch of county expenditure has been out of all proportion beyond the increase of the population; and there is great reason for supposing that much of the excess has been occasioned, not so much by any increase in the number of prosecutions, as by the want of an efficient control on the part of the magistrates. In support of this opinion it may be stated, on the authority of a report laid before Parliament, that offences prosecuted in the borough courts in Leeds, where the proceedings are properly managed, do not on the average exceed 4*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.* for each prosecution; while the charge for prosecuting the like offences before the assizes at York amounts, on the average of cases, to 50*l.* The complaint of the land-owners went to the principle, as already explained, and, appearing to be well founded, a vote of the House of Commons authorised the issue of 110,000*l.* from the Consolidated Fund to defray the charges that might be so incurred within the year. This sum, owing probably to the greater vigilance induced by the parliamentary inquiries, was found to exceed by more than 40,000*l.* the amount required, and the vote was accordingly reduced in the following year.

As regards another and an analogous branch of expenditure—the repair of churches, and certain expenses attending the celebration of public worship therein—no means exist for ascertaining the progressive amount of money levied in various parishes.

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